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ABSTRACT

This handbook discusses various topics of interest to reading consultants for the elementary level: beginning reading, word recognition, phonics, vocabulary development, comprehension, reading skills in the content area, individualized approaches to instruction, creative reading, the disadvantaged child, audiovisual aids, reading speed, reading readiness, innovations in the field, and diagnostic and remedial reading. (KS)

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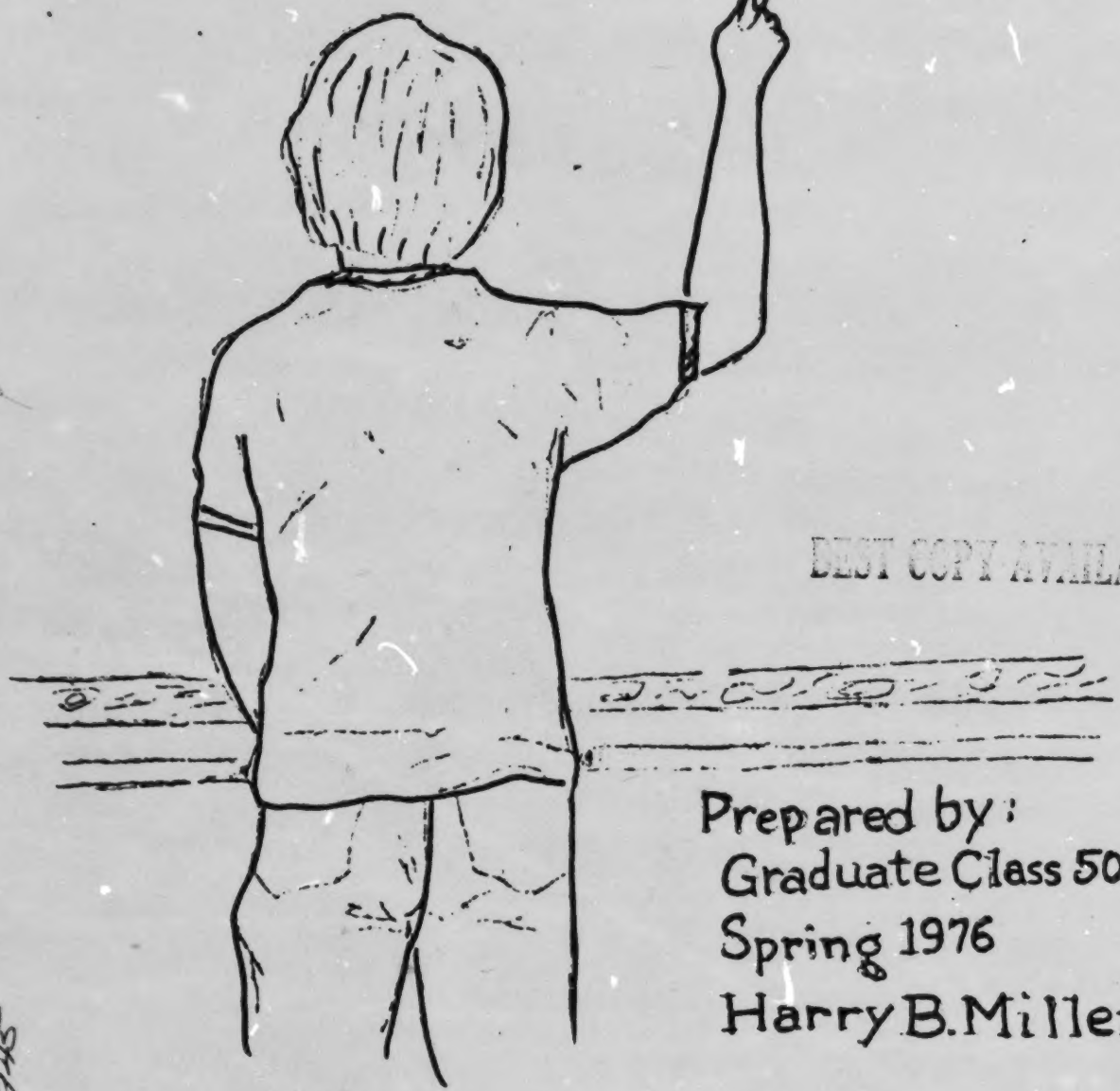
Handbook for Reading Consultants



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Prepared by:
Graduate Class 508
Spring 1976
Harry B. Miller

Northeast Louisiana University

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Beginning Reading

by

Patricia Ann Reeves

In our culture the young child approaches the formal project of learning to read when he is approximately six years of age. During the few years he has lived, he has learned to handle his body, to speak a language, to find his way around his home and neighborhood along with many subtle learnings having to do with values and patterns of solving problems. He will bring all of his previous learning with him as he approaches this new challenge of reading. The manner in which the child learns and the outcome of the attempt to read print will depend on the interaction between the child and the entire learning situation at school. This learning situation would include the teacher, the physical surroundings, the peer group, reading materials, methods of teaching as well as other factors. (Kunz, 1972: 138)

Ideally, the child approaching a beginning reading program comes with a self-image which will allow him to enter into it with confidence, eagerness, and some degree of realism. Johnson (1973: 64) states that the initial approach to the teaching of reading is of extreme importance. The child's introduction to the activity the teacher calls "reading" will establish a basic attitude towards all subsequent activities involved in learning to read. If reading involves

deciphering meaningless symbols into meaningless sounds then the child may become inclined to regard reading as a meaningless activity.

Once we get the child started on the road to learning to read then we are able to help him. The right steps in the right order include ensuring readiness, making success possible, and establishing self-direction. Making sure the learner has success with his first reading experience is very important. Unless the beginner experiences such success he will probably feel like the swimmer who nearly drowned. That first step must yield success if we want him to have courage to take the next step. (Jones, 1971: 235)

A reading program in the beginning stage is part of a continuing growth from readiness to reading. The kindergarten and part of the first grade constitute the "normal" period during which reading readiness skills are developed. As soon as there is evidence that the child can use them in formal test situations and in the more informal activities of the classroom, he is ready to start formal reading instruction. Until that stage is reached, the teacher should expose the children to activities which will aid them in developing these readiness skills. (Triggs, 1960: 18)

However, some studies have shown that greater numbers of children able to read are beginning school. Brzeinski (1964: 16-21) cites a longitudinal research study made in the fall of 1960 by the Denver Public Schools with the aid of a grant from the Cooperative Research Branch of the United States Office of Education. The study sought to determine the effectiveness of beginning the teaching of reading in kindergarten. At the end of the first

year of study, the data indicated that kindergarten-age children were able to recognize letter form and to learn letter names and associated letter sounds. The pilot program of systematic instruction in beginning reading skills appeared to be more effective than the regular kindergarten program which provided opportunity for the development of reading readiness.

This Denver study indicated that a preschool child can be taught certain beginning reading skills provided he has a mental age of at least four and a half years. The amount a child learned was related directly to the amount of time someone practiced the beginning of reading activities with him. The best performance was made by the children who had both practiced the beginning reading activities more than thirty minutes a week and who had been read to more than sixty minutes per week. In connection with this research study, a parent education study showed information that appeared to indicate that parents are eager to teach their children beginning reading skills. The parent study concluded that such early reading instruction has a measurable, positive, continuing effect. (Brzeinski: 21)

No matter what methods are adopted for teaching beginners to read, adjustments have to be made for different rates of learning and varying levels of interest in the reading task. This is the most critical period in the child's school career because his subsequent progress depends largely on the skills learned and the habits formed during the first three or four years.

If reading gets off to a good start in the first and second grades, the child's future growth in literacy is fairly well assured. (Hildreth, 1958: 187)

During the first year of reading all the basic skills needed later by the mature reader are practiced, according to Hildreth (1958: 187-188). These include:

learning a sight vocabulary
associating meanings with words and sentences
reading silently ("look and think")
establishing correct eye movements for reading
learning to use context clues to recall word and sentence meanings
learning to use picture clues
following directions through reading
learning to use books to locate information
learning how to handle books
discrimination among words
learning to recognize sounds within words
observing word relationships
recognizing punctuation marks
sensing the different purposes reading serves

There are several different methods or patterns commonly used to teach beginning reading. The methods discussed in this paper will be the whole-word approach, the language-experience method, rational-meaning basal method, and the linguistic method.

Ideally, a variety of methods should be tried out with each beginning reader. Following this, and on the basis of the child's responses, a method could be selected for him. Facing a group of thirty children, however, even the most qualified of first grade teachers is unable to employ this careful kind of matching at the start of the school year. In most school systems, the initial teaching method is prescribed; the prescription usually comes from

the school's choice of instructional materials rather than from any knowledge about there being a beginning method that will be best for most children. (Durkin, 1970: 201)

Delores Durkin recommends, as many reading specialists do, that reading instruction begin with what is generally referred to as a "whole-word approach". This simply means that entire words are taught at the start rather than letter sounds. This approach is sometimes referred to as "sight method" because the expectation is that children will recognize words on sight rather than through a letter-by-letter analysis. Sometimes it is called a "look-say method" because the assumption is that a child will look at a word and be able to say what it is without going through a careful word analysis.

Starting instruction by identifying whole words has, according to Durkin (1970: 202), certain advantages over instruction which immediately focuses on letter sounds. In the first place, learning to read words is of greater interest to young children because words unlike letter sounds, are already familiar to them in their spoken form. Learning to read by learning words also bears a closer resemblance to children's ideas of what reading is all about. Still another reason for starting with whole-word identification has to do with number of irregularly spelled words in our language, words for which knowledge of letter sounds offers very little help. Durkin recommends that reading instruction start with the identification of words; but that as soon as possible, other approaches be used, too.

In the language experience approach to beginning reading the

pupils read stories about their own experiences that the teacher has written on chart paper or on the chalkboard. The procedure usually is as follows: (1) The teacher engages the pupils in a discussion about a particular experience they have had. (2) The pupils offer sentences about the experience. (3) The teacher prints the sentences on the chart paper or chalkboard. (4) Under the guidance of the teacher the stories are committed to memory. (5) The pupils learn to associate the spoken sentences with printed sentences, then the spoken phrases with printed phrases, and the spoken words with the printed words. (Hafner and Jolly; 1972: 65)

The language experience approach is a good example of a practice that has been revived in beginning reading instruction. In the first part of the century, stories composed by children, were transformed into language-experience charts that were used in the early stages of beginning reading. Their purpose was to convey the realization to the children that reading was really talk written down. (Spache, 1972: 66) Along this avenue of thought is the feeling of Saylor (1970: 151) that reading is not just interrelated with a child's experiencing and interpreting; it is not just a part of this--rather, experiencing and interpreting are the reading process itself.

In the beginning stages of the language-experience approach, all words are learned as sight words. Since the stories are based on the children's experiences, interesting words that are meaningful to the children are used. Books are used mainly as resources for ideas to write and talk about. Basal readers may sometimes be employed, but they are accessories to the emphasis upon language development

through the medium of children's own stories. (Spache: 67)

The rational-meaning approach to beginning reading according to Hofner and Jolly (1972: 68) is a combination of a decoding method in which knowledge of letter-sound associations is one key aspect, and an emphasis upon meaning, in which understanding the context of the reading material, is the other. This pattern is called rational because it is thought to be rational when one teaches the pupils a code (knowledge of consonant letter-sound relationships) to help decode words. There is great emphasis on a given sentence being identified in a lesson should be made up of initial letters having sounds that the children know. Finally, the context that is provided should be strong enough to be of help but weak enough so that the initial letters of the word being taught must be consulted if the word is to be identified.

In this rational-meaning method stories are used as a vehicle for teaching reading skills and also as material for trying out the reading skills that are being developed. As in other systematic methods, sequences of skills are developed into various lessons, consonant letter-sound associations are taught in sequences that maximize differences among letters. A useful twist in this method is the emphasis on discussing the reasons a word can not be pronounced a particular way. As reading instruction first gets under way, a few irregular function words are taught and several key words such as names of story personalities are taught in order to provide some basic contexts for further learning of words. Aside from such

structural words, few words are taught as sight words. The emphasis is on reasoning out the words from the clues provided by the sentence context and the initial consonant letters of the word to be decoded. (Hafner and Jolly: 69-70)

In the linguistic method for teaching beginning reading, the pupils are taught as part of their readiness work the names of the letters of the alphabet. The linguistic system features the control of lettersound correspondence and the introduction of words by spelling patterns. Then in actual reading instruction two kinds of words are taught: those that fit a spelling pattern such as an (can, man, fan) and those such as of, the, and is in which the letter-sound correspondence is irregular. Words are taught as whole words but they are analyzed for their component parts. The words are taught in patterns or word families. (Hafner and Jolly: 81)

A key aspect of this linguistic-oriented method of teaching beginning reading is the use of the minimum contrast to decode words similar in spelling. The words pat and hat, for instance, are different visually in only one respect--in their first letters; therefore the first letter is the point of minimum contrast. A student should be taught to take advantage of the identical parts of words and then differentiate the words at the point of minimum contrast. By doing this he can learn to identify rapidly many words of the same pattern. (Hafner and Jolly: 81-82)

Of necessity, materials used in teaching young children to read

are simplified. Do children respond more positively to certain types of beginning instructional reading materials than to others? In a study reported by Emans and Walz (Nov., 1959: 91-98), first-grade children's reactions to stories in linguistic readers and in basal readers were compared. Two types of responses were studied: interest and verbal responses to the particular stories. Within the limitations of this study, the children showed a much stronger preference for the basal-reader stories than for the linguistic-reader stories. In addition, the basal-reader stories elicited greater verbal responses than the linguistic readers.

In summary, it could be said that beginning reading should incorporate all the methodological skills the teacher can bring to bear. Teaching reading includes developing a basic sight vocabulary learning phonetic and structural analysis skills, developing comprehension and practicing reading in rewarding and meaningful situations. Teachers problems arise much more from the complexity of children than from lack of methods and activities. (Zintz, 1970: 426)

The beginning stage of reading is usually slow because the concepts the child develops of the reading process and his basic attitude toward reading are far more important than the number of words he can recognize. Slow beginning with the emphasis on interest and enjoyment of reading reaps good results in the end. The emphasis from the beginning should be on the gaining of meaning, not on the saying of words. Word-recognition must be

accompanied by thought-getting or the recognition is of little value. (Strickland, 1957: 249)

Recommendations

After reviewing the literature and researching the subject, the following recommendations are made concerning beginning reading:

1. It should be a part of a continuing growth from readiness to reading.
2. It should use many opportunities to emphasize the principle that reading is "talk written down."
3. Beginning reading instruction should provide a wide range of experiences to make up for learning deficits.
4. Making sure the beginner has success with his first reading experience is important.
5. A good beginning reading program does not rely on one method or one technique. A combination of methods is most effective.
6. A beginning reading program should have its first objective the mastery of a sight vocabulary of words to read with.
7. The beginning reading teacher should teach a variety of ways for working out new words since the independent reader must discover new words for himself.
    a. Configuration
    b. Similarity to known words: from pail to mail, or pail to pain
    c. Context clues
    d. Picture clues
    e. Sounding out
    f. Analyzing the word structure
8. A good program emphasizes that reading above all else is a thinking process.
9. It should teach appreciations of good books and literature.

10. A beginning reading teacher should constantly be providing interesting and exciting things in the room to read--bulletin boards and displays should be changed frequently.
11. Teachers should use a variety of tests for assessment of progress.
12. Beginning reading teachers should keep abreast of new methods and materials.
13. Parents should be involved.

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Word Recognition

by

Samuel Etta Bridges

Word recognition skills and their development will be discussed in this paper. The views of several prominent authors will be given in the first part. Their views concerning the definition of word recognition, what skills have to be developed for growth and competency in word recognition, and some of the problems faced by students in learning them is discussed in the first half. Several recommendations for developing word recognition skills are given in the last part of the paper.

Word recognition as defined by Dr. Strang is the ability to pronounce and recognize the meaning of unfamiliar words. To do this the student may use a combination of methods. He may use: 1. Configuration Clues - recognizing the word by its overall shape. 2. Context Clues - getting the meaning from sentences in which the word is used. 3. Phonics 4. Analysis of word structure. 5. Use of the dictionary. All of these skills are used by an efficient reader instead of just one. When he comes to an unfamiliar word, he may try to perceive its meaning from the way it is used in a sentence. He may then check it by using phonics or structural analysis. Following this he may look the word up in the dictionary to check the pronunciation and meaning.

Further explanation of the methods of teaching word recognition skills are as follows:

Configuration: Children first recognize words by their shape, sequence of letters, and other distinguishing features.

Phonics: The learning of phonics can be made easier by limiting the first experience to words that have consistent sound-letter association. There are two ways to lessen the confusion in teaching the irregular English spelling. One is to increase the alphabet so that there is a single sound for each letter and the other is to teach the consistent sound-letter association first and then gradually teach irregularities.

Structural Analysis: Identifying prefixes, suffixes, and other parts of compound words.

Context Clues: Making an inference about the true meaning from the way it is used in the sentence. There are several types of context clues. They are: 1. Direct Explanation - where the word is explained in the sentence. 2. Experience - Meaning comes from some experience in the student's life. 3. Comparison and Contrast - the unknown word has a meaning opposite of a known word. 4. Synonym or Restatement. 5. Familiar Expression or language experience. 6. Summary - Unknown word summarizes the idea that precedes or follows it. 7. Reflection of a mood or Situation - Word fits a mood or situation already established.

Use of the Dictionary - This skill has several values for the student. He learns the correct pronunciation of the word from understanding the diacritical marks and the accent marks and how to divide words into syllables.

In Donald Cushenberry's book "Remedial Reading in the Secondary School", he gives nine word recognition skills. They are:

A. Analyzing words through the use of appropriate phonetic analysis techniques (consonant blends, digraphs, diphthongs, etc.).

B. Utilizing structural analysis tools (Prefixes, suffixes, root words, inflectional endings, knowledge of syllabification principles).

C. Using context clues to understand the meaning and pronunciation of unknown words in a sentence or paragraph.

D. Employing the use of various kinds of dictionaries to aid in the pronunciation of words, finding various meanings, noting synonyms and antonyms, understanding correct spelling of words, and noting derivations of words.

E. Utilizing visual clues from charts, pictures, and illustrations to aid in unlocking word meanings.

F. Noting configuration patterns of words as a help in the recognition and ultimate pronunciation of a given word.

G. Studying word structure as an aid in detecting compound words and building further skill in auditory and visual discrimination processes.

H. Enlarging his vocabulary through reading in a wide variety of materials.

I. Building an increased stock of sight words through the introduction of strange words in contextual situations.

Development of Word Recognition discussed in Tinker's Teaching Elementary Reading says, "To recognize a word means to identify it as a word previously known." That is, the visual form leads to thinking of recalling the correct sound of the word so that there is an association of the sound and meaning with the visual form. Immediate recognition occurs only with the well known or sight words. Other words which one has encountered but which are

less familiar are recognized less promptly but usually with only slight delay. Closer visual inspection and use of one or more word recognition clues should be used when this is the case. In order to recognize a word which is in one's comprehension vocabulary and oral usage but not encountered calls for the use of one or more clues.

He says in accordance with many others that in beginning reading a basic stock of sight words is important. However, progress in reading proficiency requires additional techniques for identifying and recognizing words. The mastery of these skills is necessary for independence in reading to be established.

He also suggests like others that a systematic program of training is required to gain the necessary skill in word recognition and identification. Independence in reading the whole reading process is speeded up once the child has acquired the skills. The development of word recognition cannot be divorced from development of a meaning vocabulary. Word recognition involves meanings, and skill in word recognition promotes vocabulary growth. Throughout reading instruction the attitudes of demanding meaning should be emphasized.

Tinker again states: Factors to consider in developing word recognition. A satisfactory progress in word recognition would be hard without first acquiring adequate auditory and visual discrimination. Basically, word recognition involves matching the visual symbol with the sound and meaning represented by the symbol.

The teacher will find marked individual differences in the ease with which children learn and apply clues to word recognitions. Those who need little help acquire independence rapidly. Those who have specific difficulty need individualized help.

Training in word recognition is needed in all grades through elementary schools. There need not be any maximum skill in any one clue. However, a sequential program with attention to individual needs is required. There should also be a balanced program in teaching word recognition. No single technique should be overemphasized or slighted. The child should know how to use each clue or technique and how to choose an appropriate clue or combination of clues and techniques to unlock a word in a particular situation.

Russell in his book, "Children Learn to Read", stated the following on word recognition.

1. Visual and auditory perceptual skills are important factors in readiness for learning to read.
2. Skills in perception and recognition of words as tested at beginning stages of reading are more closely related to reading achievement than is general mental ability.
3. Skills in word perception tend to be specific rather than general.
4. Perceptual skills break down under stress.
5. Perception is influenced by personal factors such as the expectancies and needs of the learner.
6. The perception of words depends upon relationships surrounding the word.
7. Frequency of word usage is related to ease of recognition.

8. Tendencies toward reversals and inversions of letters or words are common at five and six years of age, and may persist until seven or eight years.

9. Children may use single letter-sound combinations, or letter-group-sound combinations in auditory methods of attacking new words.

10. Most basic reading programs of teaching word recognition in primary grades start with whole words and break them into parts and building them into words (a systematic synthetic method). In general, a combination of methods are used.

11. Most basic reading programs contain a thorough approach to phonic skills, and most teachers believe in studying consonant and vowel sound digraphs and blends, phonograms, syllables, and other phonics materials involving auditory perception as part of a total reading program.

12. Activities in reading referred to as "phonics" or sometimes "phonetics" are not closely related and the findings of modern, scientific linguistics tends to be concerned with the sounds but not the meanings of words and may therefore require adaptations before being useful to the teacher of reading.

13. More precise research on children's auditory and visual perception abilities is needed, especially at the primary grade levels.

14. Visual and auditory perceptions are complex, and the process of improving perception of words is one which involves continuous reorganization and new patterning.

Albert Harris says in "Effective Teaching of Reading" on the subject of checking the child's ability to recognize words, one should test a child on words which are presented one at a time without any meaningful context. This is advisable because many children are distracted by other words or some are good at guessing. Therefore, this is need for giving a good picture of his ability.

A teacher can make his own word list from the vocabularies of the particular basal readers he is using, or thinking of using.

If a child has difficulty with four or more words in any list, he is likely to find many unknown words in books of that level, so that material in which he has this much difficulty is probably at his frustration level. If he makes only one error on a list, he should be able to use material at that level for reading instruction. Two or three errors on a list is a doubtful or marginal score.

The following lists have been considered both reliable and useful.

Queen's College
Educational Clinic
Graded Word Lists

Preprimer	Primer	1st Reader	Grade 2
and	barn	animal	claw
can	call	dinner	full
down	its	hurry	quickly
we	gave	getting	tent
like	jumped	sled	soup
see	table	nose	neck
my	them	buy	outside
is	water	until	deep
he	please	why	straw
said	morning	say	careful

Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
cheer	adventure	alternate
reindeer	bracket	companion
pleasant	conceal	definite
freight	enter	estimate
knit	group	majesty
insect	kerosene	glitter
mitten	magnet	particular
press	notion	reverence
shower	poetry	solution
whether	screw	uncomfortable

Every time a child reads orally, the teacher has the opportunity to note errors in word recognition.

According to Harris, some errors or problems in word recognition may include a lack of knowledge about single consonants, short or long vowel sounds, digraphs, blends, or syllabification; there may be inability to blend parts together, carelessness in observing word endings or middles, reversals, excessive guessing, or reluctance to use the word-analysis skills which the child has learned.

McKim in "Guiding Growth in Reading," describes the aims of word recognition skills in the intermediate grades as follows:

To meet the word recognition needs of daily reading activities. Plan practice activities that focus on mature word-recognition techniques. To identify the word-analysis skills needed by mature readers. Make use of classroom opportunities for dictionary usage. Provide the special practice needed to develop efficient dictionary skills.

Dechant in Improving the Teaching of Reading says this of word recognition skills. "Proper training in them increases independence in attacking words, improves comprehension and leads to more accurate pronunciations. Training needs to be continuous, applied in many situations and sequential."

Bond & Tinker in the book "Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis & Correction" state the necessary skills and knowledges can be classified into the following six basic learnings: 1. Associating the appropriate meanings with the printed symbols. 2. Using context

clues and other meanings of aids to anticipate the words to be recognized and then checking the accuracy of the recognitions. 3. Becoming flexible and efficient in visually analyzing the words into usable recognition. 4. Development of knowledge of word-recognition elements. 5. Learning skill in auditory blending and visually synthesizing word parts to rapidly pronounce or recognize the word as a whole. 6. Forming the habit of using the more analytical, the pronunciation techniques when and only when needed.

The major source of word-recognition difficulty will be found in the child's failure to firmly establish one or more of these basic learnings or in his overemphasis upon any of them.

The more prevalent types of basic word-recognition disabilities are listed below:

1. Failure to associate meaning with printed symbols.
2. Insufficient sight vocabulary.
3. Failure to use meaning clues.
4. Ineffective visual analysis of words.
5. Limited knowledge of word parts.
6. Lack of ability in synthesis.

Bond & Dykstra in a study of 1st grade reading sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education found regardless of the approach to reading instruction, word recognition skills must be emphasized.

Dorna Anderson in her book "Reading & Young Children", describes the following skills of word recognition developed in first grade.

I. Preparatory Experiences

A. Auditory Perception

1. Recognizing likeness in beginning word sounds.
2. Developing ability to name many words when an initial sound is given.
3. Developing ability to supply missing words when sentences are read and an initial sound for the missing word is given.

B. Visual Perception

1. Noting likenesses and differences in letter forms.
2. Noting likeness in beginnings of words
3. Noting differences in lower case and upper case letters.
4. Hearing that long words have many sounds and that I and A are single sounds and single letters.

II. Structural Class

A. Formulating and using rules to determine where a letter is silent, as gh is usually silent after a single vowel sound. (Light)
B. Formulating and using rules for dividing words into syllables.

III. Meaning Clues

A. Using an increasing number of synonyms for overworked words such as pretty, cute.
B. Using words made vivid by sound associations, as "we heard the bells ringing".
C. Using words made vivid by visual associations, as the "river is shining", or the "river's shining brim".
D. An understanding of the changes in meaning a root or stem undergoes when a prefix or suffix is added.
E. Ability to work out the meaning of words that are Latin or Greek root derivations.

IV. Auditory Clues

A. Formulating and using rules for the pronunciation of vowels in a word.
B. Using phonic clues in recognizing the form and meaning of new words.

V. Dictionary Skills

A. Understanding the function of and using the glossary, index, and dictionary.

Word - Recognition - Recommendations

Primary Child

First - help the child build up a stock of words recognized by sight.

Second, help him refine his techniques for identifying words.

Third, develop word-recognition skills that serve as a basis for word analysis.

Most of his guidance in developing word-recognition comes during his work in a reading group. Since this is true suggestions are 1st to select materials so the number of new words introduced at any one time is adjusted to the child's reading skill. Second, introduce new words before the story is read. Third, encourage children to use every clue available to recognize the words themselves. Fourth, have some follow-up activities related to the story as a form of review.

New words may also be learned from supplementary materials, independent reading.

Guidelines to follow:

Make sure meanings are clear.
Present new words so that they may be clearly seen.
Develop active interest in learning new words.
Expect occasional errors.
Provide reviews through opportunities for wide reading.
Plan special practice activities that call for thoughtful reading, such as creative-language experiences with new words, activities using words and pictures.
Use games with caution. Guessing may result or game fascination and little reading.
Make use of a variety of audio-visual and instructional aids.

Intermediate Child - Word recognition techniques are primarily used to give the instant recognition of words, by configuration and small clues, that makes for the skilled, rapid reading of the adult.

Help children meet the word meaning demands of daily reading experiences. Problems faced by the child are 1st the number of new terms increase, 2nd familiar words continue to take on new meaning, 3rd, a single meaning for a word continues to be enriched, 4th, derivatives of familiar words began to appear more often, 5th, many abstract terms begins to be used, 6th new terms are being coined and lastly the student meets terms with emotional tones attached to them for advertising and propaganda or other purposes. Make special provision for the new vocabulary of the content field.

Give special consideration to concept formation. Plan practice activities that keep interest in word meanings high.

Activities

Acquaintance with unfamiliar terms can be built through: building a class list of new terms; labeling exhibits, diagrams, or pictures; writing reports or experience records using the new terms; taking matching or multiple-choice vocabulary tests; learning to spell selected new terms; working with riddles and other games focusing on the new words.

Ability to respond to key elements in words for rapid recognition can be developed through: Breaking compound words apart, or building compound words; building words by adding previxes and suffixes to a given root; use of a tachistoscope to tell the difference of two similar words.

Making single-word picture books for the library table. Drawings of lines from words to appropriate pictures; choosing which of two sentences correctly describe a picture.

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Phonics - The Key to Fluent Reading

by

Judy Colvin

The question of the significance of phonics, or any other word perception skill, certainly cannot be answered simply, but a search for the answer is essential for teachers of language and reading. Many experts firmly believe that the study of phonics is a measure which institutes the improvement of the reading ability of children.

The term "phonics" refers to the group of techniques used by the speller or reader to encode, decode or recode, using primarily his knowledge of the phonology, morphology, and syntax of his language. Phonics should be used by the reader or speller as a means by which he or she can "crack the code". The major objective of phonics or any other word perception skill is the independence of the individual who is using the symbol system. The ultimate goal in the teaching of phonics should be the acquisition of a useful set of principles about our language which helps an individual move from illiteracy to literacy.

If a child has been taught the basic principles underlying phonics, he is then usually better equipped to learn to read fluently. Basic phonetic instruction should be designed to

minimize initial difficulties in learning to read, to control early reading and word attack habits and to meet a wide-range of individual differences. Different children learn phonics, like everything else, differently, and that one sequence, unless it is broad and general in nature, is unlikely to be appropriate for all pupils.

Basic reasoning tells us that if the essential sub-skills of word attack are mastered, then functional word attack ability will result. Teachers should not expect a student to comprehend what he or she has read if the pupil can not pronounce one out of every five words he or she encounters. Furthermore, it would be humanly impossible to memorize every word in the English language. Also so many times even context clues cannot help when an unknown word is encountered. In such cases a basic phonetic knowledge is necessary to decode the word. Of utmost importance realization on the part of today's educators is that phonics is a basic key to fluent reading.

Review of the Literature

Arthur Heilman's (1972) position regarding a question being considered, the significance of phonics instruction, is well known. He writes:

> "Learning word analysis skills, including phonics, is an absolute necessity for learning to read. No child will learn to read, at what might be designated as fluent third grade level, unless he has mastered a number of insights into cracking the code. The term code cracking, as it is used extensively today, is simply a synonym for phonics."

It is clear that Heilman places high value on systematic, organized and somewhat structured instruction in phonics, the application of generalizations regarding sound-letter relationships, as he would define it. Heilman also can be interpreted as admitting that the amount of phonics required to meet the stated objective will vary from learner to learner.

William Britton (1974) conducted a study to determine whether a meaning emphasis or a code-emphasis method of teaching beginning reading to first grade children was most efficacious. From the results of this study, he concluded that the code-emphasis method of teaching beginning reading produces statistical evidence of greater achievement than did the meaning-emphasis method.

Teaching the sounds of the letters rather than their names is the belief of another noted expert in the field of phonics instruction, Calia Brooks. She believes that names are for spelling and the sounds are for reading. Her argument is that too many children attempt to use the name of the letter in sounding out a word. Furthermore, Brooks advocates instruction in proper enunciation of the consonant sounds. She feels that by failing to do this, learning to blend the sounds into understandable words is hindered often blocked.

In a study conducted in California by the Office of Education, the ability of fifty kindergarten children to discriminate and produce the phonemes typically used in early phonic-based reading instruction was investigated in matching-to-sample discrimination task and an echoic production task. (Marsh, Sherman) The phonemes were presented to each child in isolation and in a word context in

both tasks. The average time required to teach subject was twenty minutes per day for five days. It was found that more discrimination than production errors were made, a difference which was reliable only for the vowels.

In this study vowels were easier to discriminate and produce than consonants and phoneme errors were fewer in words than in isolation, a difference which reached significance only in the production data.

In another somewhat related study conducted by the Office of Education, the ability of the beginning reader to recognize the relationships between isolated letter sounds and the same sounds embedded in a word context was tested. The subjects were sixty-four prekindergarten children attending six private preschools in the Los Angeles metropolitan area. The subjects were all Caucasian and spoke a standard English dialect. From the results of this study, it was concluded that the redundant visual cue improved performance considerably; when the cue was removed, however, performance fell to control group levels in the second week. The results suggest that the vowel following the initial stop may be an important factor in recognition.

Ruth Kurth supervised a study in which the primary purpose was to provide empirical evidence for the assumption that if the essential subskills of word attack are mastered, then functional word attack ability will result. To obtain such evidence, the study was designed to test the functional word attack ability of one hundred and

forty elementary school students who had been taught the subskills of word attack according to an objective-based, skill oriented approach outlined in Wisconsin Design of Reading Skill Development: Word attack Element. Word lists were developed to test the subjects' ability to decode synthetic words which tested specific phonic and structural subskills of word attack, phonically and structurally regular words, and phonically and structurally irregular words. The results of the study showed that the subjects were able to decode the synthetic words at the suggested 80 percent mastery level. Not all of the subjects were able to decode all of the phonically and structurally regular words at an 80 percent mastery level. However, they did attain higher scores on the tests of regular words than they did on the tests of irregular words.

Recent Phonics Programs

The Visual Linguistic Reading Program which is included in Effective Reading Programs (Right to Read) is designed to minimize initial difficulties in learning to read, control early reading and word attack habits and to meet a wide range of individual differences. Begun in 1966, the program serves an unselected cross-section of children in 110 kindergartens through third-grade classrooms in St. Paul, Minnesota and is also used in other selected cities. In addition to readers, the reading program includes programed tests, reading and listening tests, letter forms, and inquisitically related words. The program uses a system of controlled word groupings, focusing the child's attention

on individual letters rather than on word length or configuration. Linguistic word groupings, programmed texts with story-related pictures, and early attention to context clues are also combined in the series to meet the needs of children with different learning styles.

Very often the greatest source of difficulty for the disabled reader is the inconsistency of the vowel sounds in the English language. Sounds and Stories: A Vowel-Centered Approach to Reading Proficiency is intended primarily for remedial use with any reader above the first grade. This program is designed to attack this problem by providing intense, highly structured practice in the regular vowel sounds while building basic elementary reading skills. Each of the twenty-four units in the program is devoted to one vowel sound and contains a story or article with a high concentration of words using that sound. This document consists of a teachers manual and the 24 units, with each unit containing an introduction to the vowel sound, a story or article, activities, exercises and word lists. The program may be used with a whole class, in a small group or in a one-to-one situation.

Joseph Follettie has designed a Word Attack Model which provides a limited analysis of alternative approaches to phonetic-level word attack instruction. The instructive segment begins with training in letter-sound correspondences for which mastery of certain skills is assumed. Instruction ends with the decoding of novel items having a consonant vowel consonant construction. Contents consist of preliminary assumptions, terms and

definitions, training items, rules and hypotheses, instructional paths, and training and testing items.

Another recent development program is A Combined Phonics and Multi Sensory Approach Promotes Reading Improvement. (Brooks) In this program many different techniques are incorporated. The program begins with a diagnostic approach including the determination of the childs' functional reading level. Throughout the program visual, auditory kinesthetic, and tactile senses are integrated in teaching phonetic reading.

Materials and Games for Teaching Phonics

1. Phonic Rummy by Greta I. Seemann published by Kenworthy Educational Service, Inc. Buffalo, N. Y.

2. Junior Phonic Rummy by Greta I. Seemann, Lucille D. Schoolfield and Josephine B. Timberlake published by Kenworthy Ed. Service, Inc. Buffalo, N. Y.

3. U N O Phonics Game by Stella I. Wood published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc. Buffalo, N. Y.

4. Phonics for Reading published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

5. Doghouse Game by Margaret McEathron, Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

6. First Steps in Learning to Read published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

7. A - B - C Game by Ellen M. Nordling published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

8. Rainbow Word Builders by Greta I. Seemann, Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

9. The Direct Approach Audio Visual Method to Phonetics published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

10. Word Family Fun by Mignonette H. Mountain published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

11. Reading Made Easy published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y.

12. Picture-Phonic Cards by Bess Myers published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc. Buffalo, N. Y.

13. 5 First Steps and Pop Words by Margaret McEathron M. A.

14. Phonetic Word Drill Cards published by Kenworthy Educational Services, Inc., N. Y.

15. You Can Read Phonetic Drill Cards published by Milton Bradley.

16. Phonetic Quizmo published by Milton Bradley, Co. Springfield, Mass.

17. The First Talking Alphabet published by Scott, Foresman and Company, Atlanta, Dallas.

18. Phonics for Spirit or Liquid Duplicators published by Hayes school Publishing Co., Inc., Wilkinsburg, Penn.

Workbooks for Teaching Phonics

1. Phonics Workbook, by Elwell, Murray and Kucia, Modern Curriculum Press, Borea, Ohio.

2. The New Phonics We Use by Arthur Heilman and Pace Lamb, Lyons and Carnahan Publishing, Educational Division of Meredith Corp.

3. Letters and Sounds by Dan Hughes and Carl Goreiter, Open Court Publishing Company, LaSalle, Illinois.

4. Merrill Phonics Skilltext by Josephine B. Wolfe, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company/Bell and Howell Company, Columbus, Ohio.

5. More Vowels and Variants by Theodore Clymer and Thomas C. Barrett, Ginn and Company.

Summary and Recommendations

One major question which plagues educators today is "How

much phonics?" Surely part of the answer should be, enough phonics to help the learner achieve increasing independence in various coding tasks as he moves along the road from illiteracy to literacy. Students need not be taught that which they already know nor should they be frustrated by that for which they are not ready. The ideal answer is a hierarchy of phonetic skills that enhance maximum reading growth at each grade level.

Beginners in phonics should be given the opportunity to understand why it is useful to know about the sounds that letters stand for in words. Only a few minutes of explanation would create interest that would carry the class into the first lesson eagerly and set the stages for phonics to be an enjoyable subject from then on.

Teachers should be most knowledgeable about the content of phonics. Much preparation in phonics is necessary not only to enable wise selection of commercial materials but also to enable wise selection of materials for the children who are that individual teacher's responsibility. Furthermore teachers are given the responsibility for purchasing materials should take into account the need for consistency not only in reading materials but also in spelling and language texts as well.

The application of what is learned in phonics is most important. In obtaining maximum facility in using phonics, children should be provided with ample practice.

The most important aspect of any type of learning is that, that which is being learned must be applicable in other situations. If phonics instruction is not being used successfully when unknown words

are encountered, something is seriously wrong with the program.

Research studies have proven that phonics enhances reading ability. As educators, we should rely on these concrete findings and use this word attack method to help us help our students to become fluent readers.

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Vocabulary Development

by

Wanda T. Ramsey

Introduction:

"Whenever someone questions the value of vocabulary development, I point out that words are the tools to thought. The more extensive and precise a student's vocabulary, the more exact the student's thinking." Whether or not we all agree with Mr. Gallup in his famous Gallup polls, as teachers and administrators of reading, we must agree with his correlation between vocabulary tests and intelligence tests. Words are the tools with which we test thousands of young people each year and mechanically place them in groups or levels for reading achievement according to how well they can call words. It is not to say that this is the incorrect way to teach, but perhaps there is a better way. We give a satisfactory mark in vocabulary and one in comprehension. We then assign a "grade" in reading which is justifiable of each. But if words (vocabulary) are our tools to thought (comprehension) it's hard to believe that the beginning accelerates the end.

How many months have you worked Peter Funk's vocabulary building pages in Reader's Digest and not even touched the 12-14 scale for good? How long has it been since you looked

at all the meanings of a word instead of just the spelling? How many times have you used a word until it is worn out? Vocabulary develops from age one on. As adults we are happy to grade our children on their incapability for using fluent English as we sit comfortably with our own vocabulary of half its functional capacity. In a world such as ours, we must keep abreast and grow as rapidly as science does. However, our children must grow rapidly also. They can not wake as an adult and learn all those words they never learned before. We must understand, motivate, and research the teaching of vocabulary skills in our schools as well as our homes.

Commentary:

When does a child develop his vocabulary? Well, first it must be clarified as to which vocabulary we are inquiring. By age one, a child's hearing vocabulary is quite acute, while his working vocabulary is limited to "mama," "daddy", and "doggie". Between age two and five a child's listening vocabulary slowly emerges and storybooks become fascinating wonderlands of funny things and places. By age five, Delores Durkin has suggested that reading should be enjoyable. If the child is ready for a reading program, by all means begin. However, it is wise that an accelerated first grade program be available so that the student doesn't have to relearn known words. By first grade the child has a hearing vocabulary of 3,000-14,000 words. His basal text reader for this first year will require him to speak 40-110

words. By the third grade this rate has increased to 1,900-3,300 words and by the sixth grade to 8,500 words.

But how did he learn so many words? In the early years the child learned by varied and related first-hand and vicarious experiences. This was enhanced through trips, books and play. At age three, pictures were the main teaching device. In first grade, configuration made words have a puzzling effect, and in second grade context clues played a major role in learning new words. Next, the child learned by studying words. In third grade, phonic and structural analysis was a strong background-foundation building block. Finally, through wide and extensive reading the fourth grader depended on the dictionary to unlock really tough words. As time progressed the child learned the art of conversation which gave him the practice needed to make the word a permanent member of the vocabulary family Television brought new experiences, feelings, and activities to an expanding mind. Thus oral and visual language were well established and growing.

Now that the child is growing there appear to be gaps; words he should know, but doesn't; sounds he can reproduce at times, but not always; problems that suggest our educational system has failed or left valleys undiscovered in this young mind. After scores of tests, we attempt to pick up where the child left off. But how? Do we simply reteach until he gets the materials? Do we use the same techniques with different emphasis?

Gray and Holmes have suggested that "direct systematic, well-planned drill, in context is valuable; whereas isolation teaching

is ineffective." Samuels, Begy, and Chen (1975) tested this theory with word recognition skills. They approached the task in two ways. First, reading was recognition as a complete reading process (holstic) and secondly, through a sub-skill approach. In the subskill approach, reading was considered an higher-order human skill, thus, to understand completely what one read one must understand all subskills of the process very well. One major problem emerged. Reading is a complicated skill. It is deeply implanted and maticulously performed rapidly. Reading is much more than the mere calling of words. It became increasingly difficult to clearly define a word recognition problem from a visual one or perceptual one. Timing was no die, since reading is almost completed as the auditory branch performs. They did however develop the following four stages of recognition:

1. Information use - Father cut the green _____.
2. Hypothesis formation - The student thinks of possible answers. emerald, grass, cloth, etc
3. Test - Father cut the green grass.
4. Accept or reject - The student uses all clues to make his decision.

This study concluded that the faster the recognition the better the reader.

Everyone has his way of working out his own problems and reading problems are no exception. Patrick Graff states that teaching by letter cues is a much easier and more safe method of teaching vocabulary. He claims the configurations of our words

are misleading. And yet, Jeanne Chall has produced valid evidence in this field. This brings to point the work of Edward Dolch and his sight word lists. He stresses that the faster and sooner the child knows certain words the better reader he is. Cohen and Schwartz revealed that when a child substitutes, he may not know the difference in the two words. The child may be scanning the word or phrase or he may be being careless in his reading. They conclude by saying that "only when we are certain of the strategies that the youngster now relies on to identify words, can we tailor instruction to his specific needs."

Smith has suggested that a skilled reader of modern English makes use of the following four sources of information during the reading act:

1. Featured information - The visual information that the reader's eyes pick up from the page.

2. Orthographic information - Knowledge of the way in which letters are grouped into words.

3. Syntactic information - Knowledge of the way in which words are arranged to formulate clauses and sentences.

4. Semantic information - Knowledge of meanings of the morphemes and words of the language.

Lee Deighton states that "study of a limited number of words in depth is more productive than superficial acquaintance with lists of words". He had taught with traditional word lists and dictionary-skills type vocabulary for years. He then attempted a whole new approach catering to the students needs. The children looked up and practiced writing and speaking every aspect of one word per day. As their familiarity of the system

grew the number of words increased. He found that review was vital since many words are not used as easily as others. He concludes by stating that "a successful vocabulary program must provide continuous practice and review." He also agrees with Lillian Gray in revealing that vocabulary stimulates conceptual thinking which results in comprehension

Ramalda Spalding suggests that we let children write with what they know. A good vocabulary is necessary for accurate thinking. A good writing vocabulary is essential to logical, sequential reasoning. So let children use what they know and teach the skills and words from that point on. Use of discussion is particularly vital at this point. Thus the Spalding Method requires the early mastery of a good vocabulary for writing and reading.

Summary:

The lists and studies are endless. Being educators, we have explored every avenue possible to teach more effectively the vocabulary skills we need. At the posting of each test score, another has begun. There simply is no one answer to the improvement of vocabulary.

However, with an understanding of the stages and development of each type of vocabulary, one is much more apt to be following the right path for improvement. Each time there is a new way of diagnosing progress, teachers will try their best to use it properly. And each suggestion an administrator gives will be

very pains-takingly incorporated. Using some tradition, some invention and a lot of hard work, vocabulary development must become a great emphasis in our schools.

Recommendations:

After scores of articles and readings in the field of vocabulary development, the following recommendations should be made:

1. Use of vocabulary lists have proven less effective in the long-range goal. Small groups of words studied in depth are far more superior.
2. Develop vocabulary through the following areas:
   a. Perceptual accuracy and visual efficiency using visual and kinisthetic aids.
   b. Building experiences using creative writing or speaking.
   c. Skill building using experience charts.
   d. Application and enrichment using independent activities.
3. For words of one syllable instruct the child to use the following procedure to unlock the new word.
   a. Read the sentence.
   b. Look at the beginning sound.
   c. Look at the vowel sound.
   d. Look at the ending sound.
4. For words in context, have the student use these tips to unlock the word:

a. Read the whole sentence for the word's meaning.

b. Divide the word into syllables using your rules.

c. Sound out the word, syllable by syllable.

5. In many cases we as teachers, fill in words for a child or let an inappropriate word do. To increase vocabulary, we must demand accuracy in all of the child's work. He grows and discovers words on his own; words that he will remember much longer than the words you tell him to use.

6. Always provide some language training in small group sessions in order to facilitate two-way communication between teacher and child.

7. When using foreign words, it is most advisable to use picture cues in conjunction with the printed symbol.

8. The environment should be warm, friendly, and supportive. Only when the child is "at home" will he do and try his best.

9. The teacher should always regard the home environment of her children as the single most important factor in their vocabulary development. This is true in both the educational atmosphere of the home and the proper physical care of the child.

10. Lastly, and most importantly, the teacher should be aware that vocabulary development does not stand apart from the reading process, but is an integral part or foundation for that miraculous activity so valuable to our society.

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Comprehension

by

Frances E. Hurst

Reading is a thinking process and one of our most important avenues to learning. Comprehension is the cognitive dimension of reading and is defined by Dallman and DeBoer (1970) as getting the meaning from what is being perceived in writing.

The most important objective for reading is to be able to respond intellectually to what is read. To do so, the reader must comprehend what the author means, extend and refine his concepts and understandings, and then make this application to his daily living (Beery, Garrett, Powell, 1969: 226).

A controversy concerning the teachability of comprehension exists between leaders in the field of reading. One opinion is that reading comprehension is a general ability acquired without specific teaching and the opposite view is that comprehension is a combination of various specific skills that can be taught. Dallman and DeBoer (1970: 180) take the latter portion.

The three levels of comprehension are outlined as follows:

1. Literal Level - reading what is actually written; reading for facts
2. Generalization Level - reading between the lines;

perceiving the implied meaning

3. Critical Level - reading beyond the lines; discovering the author's purpose, making judgments and associating with personal experiences (Dechant, 1970: 447.)

Comprehension skills include: reading for details, main ideas, sequence, to follow directions, skim, draw conclusions, generalizations and to evaluate critically. Some study skills are: remembering, locating information, organizing, summarizing and adjusting the reading speed to the correct level of difficulty and depth of comprehension (Tinker and McCullough, 1968: 201, 221-222)

Comprehension skills are related to other reading skills. Research indicates that training in listening favorably influences comprehension. Word knowledge is not always necessary for understanding. It is possible for words to be retained or memorized without comprehension, and it is also possible to read with meaning and yet not retain the information.

A student may not be apt in all the skills needed for full comprehension. There is a substantial correlation between intelligence and reading ability. Hindrances in reading comprehension include the conceptual load the mental ability is able to carry as well as physical and environmental limitations (Dallman and DeBoer, 1970: p. 177).

When can one begin teaching a child to understand what he reads? The initial steps must begin very early, but culmination comes later, if it comes. The ability to remember and reason

is a native endowment and can be developed to varying degrees. The primary teacher should make a start by giving the learner a purpose for reading (Dechant, 1970: 447).

The teacher's role lies in finding, eliminating or preventing obstacles to meaningful reasoning. Informal inventories, teacher-made tests, standardized tests, scholastic and health records, careful observation and meaningful questioning are all important diagnostic tools available to the teacher for this purpose.

The teacher is in a position to help the student establish a purpose for reading. It may be to see what the selection is about, if it is valuable or if it is necessary for summaries or organization. The purpose may be to read for details to support the main idea or to follow directions. He may want significant conclusions. Other purposes would be to predict outcomes, to evaluate critically or to make assumptions in the light of what was read. The reader may need to answer questions, analyze charts and graphs or solve problems. Whatever the reason, a purpose is necessary to insure success in reading.

Comprehension can be improved in planned, regular reading classes and extended throughout the day in correlation with other subjects and even out of school through book reports and projects which require reading for meaning. Improvement can be made incidentally through such activities as: selecting titles for a puppet show, telling good story endings, summarizing, predicting what will happen next and transferring comprehension skills to the content area (Dallman and DeBoer, 1970: 180-192).

Daisy Marvel Jones (1971: 187-191) recommends that the teacher begin with the child's background of experience and approach the story through picture study. The student's curiosity is developed by asking them to tell what they think happens and then read silently to see what really happens. Words are unlocked in context. Discussion follows revealing misconceptions and troublesome vocabulary. All possible clues are used to decode unfamiliar words and meanings. Oral reading follows for the purpose of sharing interpretations. Drill and practice is included as needed. In this way the reader is taught how and then allowed the opportunity to succeed. Skills grow with use instead of being taught for use. These steps may be summarized in this manner:

1. Introduction
2. Motivation
3. Silent reading
4. Discussion
5. Oral reading

A study by Davis (1968) of skills basic to comprehension found knowledge of word meanings and the ability to make inferences the two most significant factors in comprehension. These along with the ability to follow the structure of a passage and locate answers to specific questions, seem to undergird the more complex behaviors.

In a study of the relationship between third grade children's ability to understand sentence structure and their reading achievement, a correlation of .89 and .72 was found between the ability to see the relationship of sentence parts and total reading achievement (Gibbons, 1941).

Awareness of the form of sentences is seen increasingly as a foundation for effective communication. Reading ability is greatly improved when writing is taught as a thinking process with the opportunity to construct meaningful sentences (Squire, 1965).

Ruth Strang (1967) says, "Practice in constructing clear paragraphs is a good prelude to improving paragraph comprehension."

Research does not show a direct transfer between the development of listening to reading or in the development of writing to reading, but Smith (1968) and Smith and Barter (1968) base their findings on the experience of teachers and writers who agree that writing is a form of thinking and is beneficial to the reading process. Burack (1965) says "We ask our students to write because writing makes them think.....Writing is ultimately an exercise in logic...For some of our students writing will mean the freeing of the intellect. For some it will be the disciplining of that intellect."

Hafner and Jolly (1971: 145-149) state that the successful reader is able to relate fundamental experiences with language sounds and ideas. Comprehension depends on word identification, experiences, vocabulary, familiarity with the spoken language,

ability to perceive relationships and intelligence. Comprehension is neither observable or demonstrable, but the teacher can observe what the reader does after reading.

The formal reading plan offered by Hafner and Jolly varies only slightly with the one cited previously by Daisy Marvel Jones. A summation of their plan is:

1. Readiness
2. Guided reading
3. Discussion and clarification
4. Skill instruction
5. Enrichment

The SQ3R technique may be used to facilitate the student's understanding and retention of written material. Hafner and Jolly (1971: 164-165) give it to us in simplified form:

1. Survey. General information is found by reading headings, summaries, pictures, maps, charts to reveal the nature of the content and its organization.
2. Question. The reader frames questions for himself and brings previous experience and knowledge always thinking in terms of what he already knows and what he wants to know.
3. Read. The reader begins reading from the beginning of the portion he thinks best suits his needs and reads to answer his questions and to look for other pertinent information.
4. Recite. This is one of the most valuable features of the SQ3R technique. The reader pauses after each segment on one topic to think through what he has read. He answers questions and specifies other main points.
5. Review. The reader now pulls together loose ends. He attempts to bring the separate segments into a unified whole. This is best done immediately and not later as in class discussion.

This technique should be introduced in the upper elementary grades as the ground work for concentrated study to be encountered later. The first two steps of surveying and questioning may be taught as early as the third grade.

One major benefit of this plan is that the student does not accept reading and studying as identical processes. Simple reading leaves gaps in their knowledge. Thinking about the material before, during and after reading is as important as the reading itself.

Dr. Hafner who recommends that the best materials that a teacher can use for comprehension are the content texts, articles and essays that meet these three conditions:

1. The material should include subject matter that is an integral part of the content course.
2. The material must be written at the instructional level for the student.
3. The type of skill taught must determine the kind of material. For example, outlining cannot be done on narrative material.

Hafner and Jolly (1971: 147-148) provide us with a list of the basic behaviors that reflect understanding and meaning for the reader. Teachers can say that some degree of comprehension has taken place when the pupil can:

1. Answer questions of fact and detail on the material that he has read.
2. Follow directions or accurately perform some actions described in the material.
3. Recall and describe in his own words what he has read.
4. Recount the sequence of events in a narrative.
5. Discriminate the significant from the insignificant details.
6. Describe the relationship of illustrations, examples, or anecdotes, and so on to the points they are intended to clarify.
7. Identify the topic sentences, main ideas, and thesis statements in exposition.
8. Describe the relationship of the content read to other content in the same or in a related area.
9. Specify accurate, independent conclusions and inferences from expository material.
10. Describe the organizational pattern of expository selections--time, space, cause-effect, and so on.
11. Describe the connotations and other implied meanings in literary materials.
12. Describe the tone and mood of a selection.
13. Identify the author's implied motives or purposes.
14. Identify symbolism, figurative language, and other subtle language devices and describe their function.

Otto and Smith (1970: 74-87) lists five characteristics of a mature reader:

1. The mature reader reads for a purpose.
2. The mature reader organizes his reading and understands organizational patterns.
3. The mature reader uses his reading experiences to enlarge his vocabulary.
4. The mature reader knows how to get meaning from sentences.
5. The mature reader knows how to vary his style and rate of reading.

There are many objectives or purposes for reading. The mature reader knows exactly what his object is. The immature reader knows only that he finished the assigned reading. The mature reader is able to change his purpose if necessary while he reads. The teacher at all levels with good techniques for motivation can draw on the child's experiences and help them formulate their own questions and reasons for reading. The author's purpose for writing should be considered and perhaps examples of writings with various objectives could be shown to help the student develop his own purposes.

The mature reader organizes his own reading. He recognizes writing patterns; such as, a most-important-to-least-important, a least-important-to-most-important, a building-to-a-climax, or a cause-effect organization. The student can be made aware that most writing is organized, materials are organized differently, and that the selection he is reading has a pattern that he is to follow actively to perceive the author's purpose.

The utilization of words encountered in reading in the student's written and spoken vocabulary is a measure of the mature reader. He uses various methods for decoding words which include discovering meaning in context, phonetic analysis, structure or using the dictionary. The more he reads, the more he comes to love words and to recognize their esthetic value.

The mature reader is able to make "sentence sense." Words are put together in an orderly way to convey meaning. He understands that words and groups of words have various functions in their relative positions in the sentence. He knows, also, that sentences are organized meaningfully into paragraphs which say something to the reader.

The term "reading rate" is misleading and should be called "rate of comprehension." The mature reader reads according to his needs. It isn't necessary to read word for word to discover if the material is relevant. A quick overview is sufficient. Reading for pleasure can be done at a much faster rate than reading to solve problems or for study and retention. The ability to adjust the speed of reading has not been developed in the beginning reader. The teacher may well wait until the reader can sufficiently decode words to begin instruction in the flexibility of reading. When the pupil begins to understand meanings, the teacher can give help and instruction for reading according to the purpose for a particular selection.

Reading cognitively is the only real purpose for reading. The teacher plays an important role in providing specific instruction in comprehension skills. Reading comprehension is vital for everyday life and is worthy of every effort made by teachers at all grade levels to achieve success in this important skill.

Recommendations

1. Reading comprehension is a skill that can be taught. I recommend that all teachers accept their responsibility in teaching reading as a thinking process.
2. Comprehension can be taught by the direct teaching of the various skills listed in this paper. Each teacher needs to be familiar with these and activities available for instruction.
3. Objectives for reading need to be established. Reading for a purpose is of primary importance. The students can be assisted in formulating their own goals or reasons for reading.
4. The initiation of reading for comprehension should take place at the very beginning. When the child is only in the stages of listening for pleasure, questions can be asked to assess comprehension.
5. Skills in comprehension should be developed from the factual level to the higher levels of implication and judgment. The teacher's skill in questioning can be improved by moving away from "when, what and where" questions to "how and why" questions.
6. The teaching of comprehension should be carefully planned in regular reading lessons and continued all day and into "at home" activities. Reading correlates highly with other language arts and comprehension can best be strengthened in the content areas.

7. A love for words and reading should be instilled in students that would cause them to read for pleasure and result in reading adults.
8. Materials available for classroom use as well as those from the world around us should be utilized. The teacher should be creative in her approach to reading and find materials with "child appeal". It is wise to read something to children every day. It may be only a brief selection; some thought to analyze or to simply enjoy.
9. The teacher should provide visual stimuli and an environment for learning in the classroom.
10. The teacher should draw on the child's background of experience. The student's input to the printed page is one determinant for the meaning he receives.
11. An attitude of discovery or exploration is important for developing reading comprehension. The child should be motivated to find his own answers.
12. Word knowledge must be taught with a direct relationship to meaning. Word calling is not reading.
13. The reading teacher should periodically examine her style of teaching, her list of skills, her daily planning and her questioning to see what she is really teaching.
14. The teacher should evaluate her own growth and the growth of the students in this important business of bringing meaning into our lives through the comprehension of the printed page.

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Developing Reading Skills in the Content Areas

by

Oreda DeBurr

Lunstrum (1976: 10) states, "public and professional interest in reading in content areas has substantially increased during the last decade." He goes on to say that some of the reasons for this growing interest are: "new professional viewpoints, legislative pressures in some states, mounting public concern about reported serious deficiencies in reading performance, ... and the availability of funds to support research and training activities."

Elementary teachers are blamed by junior and senior high teachers for any and all reading difficulties their students encounter. Some junior and senior high teachers realize there are specific techniques they can use to help students understand the subject matter in the area they are teaching. Other subject area teachers simply tell the students "to read the next chapter for tomorrow and be ready to answer questions." (Karlin, 1964.)

Olson (1974: 100) states that "failure to teach the necessary skills is failure to teach the subject matter well." Herber (1970: v) says, "to teach well we must show the learner how to do what is required of him and do it in such a way that he develops an understanding of the process."

Karlin (1964: 230) intimates, "no one person has complete responsibility for extending reading competency and building new reading habits, and every teacher whose subject matter area calls for reading can help students overcome obstacles in textbook reading."

Marksheffel (1966: 156) says, "a number of reading skills and techniques are common to all subject-matter fields, although certain reading skills and needs are peculiar to each content area."

Rationale has been established for the need of every teacher to become a teacher of reading so that Mary Austin's (1961: 49) prediction that "... present inadequate methods of instruction will be perpetuated ..." will not come true. Listed below are skills that must be taught in the areas of English, mathematics, science and social studies. Suggested activities are included for the teaching of these skills.

Content of English

The types of reading materials in the content of English are varied. Students have different literary genres to read such as the short story, the novel, poetry, and drama. Hafner (1974: 351) states, "students are expected to do critical reading, comprehend what they read, and then do something with the material." Olson (1972: 105) says, "teachers must realize that each specific literary genre requires different skills. No more than three related skills should be taught at one time."

Skills to be Developed

The main categories of skills to be taught in the area of English as listed by Olson (1972: 103-104) are comprehension, vocabulary, location, speed and oral reading. Marksheffel (1966) and Hafner (1974) list skills that are approximately the same as those given by Olson.

Suggested Activities for Developing Skills

Marksheffel (1966: 179) suggests that teachers use the manual which accompanies the textbook to get "an overview of the content ... explanation of the general plan of the text, including suggested teaching procedure."

Jewett (1957: 75) intimates that the teacher should provide background experiences by using slides, filmstrips, realia, motion pictures, field trips and personnel from the community.

Olson (1972) says the English teacher should check the suitability of the reading materials to the levels of the students; introduce the textbook to the students at the beginning of the year; discuss probable difficulties and how to avoid them. Assignments should be clear so that students will know why and what he is reading for. Students can be grouped for individualized instruction.

Content of Mathematics

Earp (1970: 575) states, "the only place to teach some of the reading pertinent to a content area is in the class dealing with that material." This is certainly true in the area of

mathematics. Hafner (1974: 326) asserts, the "problem of a mathematics teacher is two-fold. The teacher must help students learn to read mathematical materials, and must help them read to learn mathematical concepts." He further states "math has distinct symbols and vocabulary." (1974: 325)

Skills to be Developed

"The abbreviations and symbols of arithmetic are...difficult for students until they are explained and made meaningful by the teacher," Marksheffel (1966: 188). He gives these samples of the kinds of symbols involved: " ÷, X, =, cwt., yd., ft." Teaching the exact meaning of these symbols are reading skills because they have precise definitions.

Deriving meaning from words and phrases is just as important as getting meaning from symbols. Jewett (1957: 82) intimates, "since, therefore, consequently, put-together, take-apart, compare, by definition, by assumption, and the like, call for keen discernment."

Earp (1970: 575-578) gives five specific procedures for attaining an understanding in the reading of mathematics. They are: reading to visualize the situation; rereading to get facts; reading to note problem vocabulary or concepts; rereading as a help in planning the steps for problem solving; and reading the problem again to check procedure and solution.

Henney (1971: 223) indicates that "different patterns of eye fixation are required for reading words and for reading

numerals, the adjustment causing difficulty for some children."

Suggested Activities for Developing Skills

Hafner (1974) has the following suggestions for math teachers. Ascertain readiness by checking understanding of prerequisite concepts. Inventory student's reading, speaking vocabulary, and understanding of signs and symbols. The development of concepts can be gained through student participation, use of visual aids, and on-hand activities. The speaking and reading vocabulary can be developed by encouraging students to use new words, by introducing new words in context, through structural analysis, and through sequential introduction of signs and symbols. Students should be encouraged to read mathematical materials to reinforce an idea, gather facts and details, for general information, to draw conclusions from data collected, to follow directions, and for enjoyment.

Sartain (1973: 47-50) suggests activities of this type to strengthen skills in mathematics

> Family recipe-- selecting recipes and recomputing measurements of ingredients to fit different family sizes.

Content of Science

Marksheffel (1966) states, "scientific writing is filled with abbreviated forms and scientific language." Examples are: S_2H_5OH, H_2O, NaCl, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, and H_2SO_4. Special reading skills are required to understand their exact meanings. According to Hafner (1974: 313), "most instructional material produced by publishing companies have been developed to meet the needs of students who have average or above average ability."

Skills to be Developed

Karlin (1964) intimates, "the reading of science textbooks becomes more meaningful if answers to problems are sought." Questions should be given to students to guide their reading. Outlines are also useful.

Hafner (1974: 316) suggests that teachers provide word study. This word study should consist of key words; basic stems and their mechanical make-up; words that are to be learned by association with objects and activities, technical scientific words, new words, and exact biological terminology. He points out further that there is a "significant relationship between sentence structure and comprehension difficulty... longer sentences make comprehension more difficult." He goes on to state that easier synonyms need to be substituted for non-scientific language. Here is an example from a book which "describes lightning as a spectacular exhibition of static electricity." The level of reading difficulty could be simplified by substituting 'great display' for 'spectacular exhibition'.

Teachers must check to see if students have clear concepts of vocabulary presented. Jewett (1957: 89) provides this illustration. A girl gives the definition of 'genes', "...males have Genes in their cells, but females have Jeans in theirs."

Suggested Activities for Developing Skills

Karlin (1964) provides a model for developing science lessons. The plan consists of a readiness period which is based on relating experiences, introduction of vocabulary, and setting the

setting the purpose for reading. Silent reading, a discussion, rereading, and application will be based on purposes.

Eye Gate House (1971) has a record filmstrip combination which asserts science books are to be read in this manner.

1. Glance through book for overview. Pay attention to formulas, diagrams, illustrations
2. Read preface/introduction for sense of direction
3. Examine title page for full name of book
4. Check copyright date for recency
5. Examine table of contents
   a. Sequence of materials arranged by chapters
   b. Special vocabulary or symbols
   c. Examine order of treatment of chapters
6. Skim chapter title, subtitles, italicized or headings in bold print, discussion questions, labeled illustrations, pronounciation key, glossary, and chapter summaries for general concepts.

Content of Social Studies

"Social studies courses consist of economics, American history, world history, and civics or government. Students must have comprehension and insight to understand the vast array of concepts, terminology, and connotations that are used in the various texts," Jewett (1957: 74).

Skills to be Developed

Lunstrum (1976: 12) states

> Nash applied the Dale-Chall formula and the Fry formula to three randomly selected readings in each of five randomly selected projects preparing new social studies materials. He found a range of levels as great as six years within some materials. Also in 1973 Johnson and Vardian applied four readability formulas to the assessment of sixty-eight social studies texts from grades one through six. Their findings suggest that the tendency persists to publish

> elementary social studies texts at readability levels above grade level;... study disclosed for the intermediate texts a readability range within texts from two to twelve years.

According to Marksheffel (1966: 174-175), some factors which make textbooks difficult are: "technical language used by subject specialists; placing too many concepts, ideas, facts in a paragraph or on a page." Lunstrum (1976) indicates some concepts may not be placed in sequence; or, are paced inadequately which causes "concept crowding." It is essential that each student grasps thorough meanings so they will know "...foreign ministers do not preach, watered stock refers to water nor to animals, the iron curtain contains no metal drapery," Jewett (1957: 92).

Suggested Activities for Developing Skills

Hafner (1974: 374-384) says there are three broad categories of skills in the social studies area. They are: "pronunciation, meaning, and application."

Lunstrum (1976: 16) asserts the study guide is essential to content-centered strategy because it gives a purpose for reading. "The guides are designed to offer both structure and direction on three levels of comprehension within a lesson." These levels are identified in Herber's model as:

Level I literal understanding or recall of factual details

Level II interpretation or the utilization of inferential skills

Level III application or the formulation of generalizations

Marksheffel (1966: 181-184) has an extensive list of activities for developing skills in the social studies. A few are: individualized materials, visual aids, and teaching students how to read the textbook.

Eye Gate House (1971) has a record-filmstrip which indicates social studies texts are to be read similar to a science text.

Research has revealed that content area teachers have not been trained to teach reading. It has further revealed that reading in the content areas has received substantial impetus only during the last decade. Findings from review of the literature show there are some reading skills common to all subject areas; whereas, there are other skills applicable to a specific area.

Listed below are recommendations for the improvement of reading in the same content area.

Listed below are recommendations for the improvement of reading in the content area.

1. Teachers should assess in advance the reading difficulty of the content material. The Cloze procedure is useful for measuring functional reading as related to concept density.
2. Teachers should study the manual that accompanies the text for readability level and suggestions on methodology.
3. Teachers should assess the readability levels of students by using a readability formula. They can keep an informal reading inventory file on individual students.

4.. Teachers can select multi-level or multiple texts for classroom use,

5. Teachers should review techniques on how to study the textbook for that specific course at the beginning of the school year,

6. Purpose should be the controlling factor for reading in the content areas. Questions, specific directions, study guides, summaries, and outlines are helpful,

7. Teacher training is needed in the total area of reading in the content subjects,

8. In-service programs are needed to emphasize and show how to teach basic skills,

9. Reading specialists' and supervisors can help classroom teachers devise techniques for teaching reading in these areas.

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The Individualized Approach to Reading

by

Charlotte Griffis

The teaching of reading has never been more important than it is today. Even the simplest life that an individual may choose contends that one must have at least some basic skills on reading. The responsibility of preparing individuals for this area of life lies in the hands of the elementary reading teacher. With the increased need for reading ability comes a need for increased study of methods to teach reading. One relatively recent method of instruction is the individualized approach.

The individualized approach emphasizes the development of the pupil rather than the importance of the materials, their sequence, and their essentiality. It is concerned with the over-all development of the child's reading skills and interests. It traces its origin to three major principles of child development: (1) seeking, (2) self-selection, and (3) self-pacing. This is based on the philosophy that the child, motivated by internal needs, will attempt to read those materials suited to his needs and interests. He will also progress in level and skills as his growth pattern and readiness for new learning permits. The

general objective of this approach is to promote the fullest development of the pupil's skills, capacities, and interest. This method centralizes on the pupil rather than the class, the child's needs rather than the teacher's and the individual rather than the group. Individualization can either utilize a prescribed program or can be organized by the classroom teacher.

There are many studies that have shown the individualized approach as superior to the traditional method in some respects. A study by Camper, in which he compared the effectiveness of the individual method with the traditional method of teaching reading skills, showed the individualized method superior in all areas tested. This project was with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students.

Fairman used an individualized program in a study to determine its effectiveness in learning reading skills. Periodically students were given tests to measure specific skills and determine whether or not the student had mastered certain units. The students and teachers were both enthusiastic in their attitude toward the method. The results of the study showed a reduced threat of failure as well as development of tools which will aid in independent learning.

The main purpose of a study by Jackson was to determine the effect of individualized instruction on reading comprehension, work discrimination, and word knowledge as measured by standardized test. The tests showed significant gain in nine out of thirteen

subjects in the first, second, and third grades. It was assumed, by their results, that the individualized method did make a difference in the teaching-learning situation.

Spencer designed a study to compare the effectiveness of an individualized reading method and a conventional reading approach when used in rural communities. The individualized program was divided into two parts: (1) motivated story reading and (2) intensive systematic phonetic instruction. All achievement test scores showed a highly significant difference between the two methods favoring the individualized approach.

Organization in individualized reading requires more detailed teacher planning than most other approaches. The teacher has the problem of securing a wide variety of reading materials including magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, trade books and basals from a number of reading levels. Preparations must be made for a large selection of dittoed or mimeographed exercises in word recognition skills, word attack techniques, word meanings, vocabulary buildings, and other preparations. Work centers will need to be established utilizing audio visual aids such as records, films, filmstrips, charts, and others. Since such a multiplicity of materials and aids are incorporated, much time must be spent in planning their use. The informality of the individualized reading classroom, the freedom of the pupils to select their own reading materials, and the amount of time given to activities independent of teacher direction, makes careful record-keeping essential to a successful individualized program.

Institution of an individualized plan should begin with testing to determine the level and specific needs of each individual child. This should be used to place the child and assess specific needs. The child should be allowed to select his own materials within his ability level. Individual conferences should be held as often as possible. Two to four conferences are used to observe both oral and silent reading skills, to check his understanding of word meaning, sight vocabulary, to discuss ways of selecting future reading materials, and to look over the child's reading scores.

In such conference, the student reads a selection of his book to the teacher and answers questions about it. The teacher discusses the book and suggests another one to be read next. The teacher plans with the child for future work in skills in which he is weak, or gives him definite assignments on worksheets to provide skill training. Follow up activities may be suggested relating to the content of the reading material.

Pupils are expected to display a significant measure of independence, motivation and persistance. Groups of children must learn to function together effectively as helpers, teams, or committees in following their special interests in preparing projects and in sharing the idea gained from their reading. This will be done often with minimum teacher direction and supervision.

The problems of this approach could possibly be classified as problems of organization, problems of administration. The chief organizational problem is the initiation of the program.

This is probably best illustrated by the writing of a theme in a high school English class. It sometimes seems like an eternity before the first words of the theme are transcribed, however, once this milestone is reached, the rest of the words seem to fall in place.

The class size may present an organizational problem. Too many students would make individualization a virtual impossibility due to time limitations. Other problems of this nature are problems having to do with pupil maturity in habits of individual and small group work. If the students have already developed some skill and habits in independent work, this will lighten the burden of the teacher during the early days of individualized instruction. On the other hand, if students have no developed habits, the teacher will need to spend a lot of time early in the program developing them. An ideal situation for a program such as this is when the pupils are selected from the school population to participate, however, too much selection would eliminate the need for individualization since the purpose of the program is to meet various needs of specific pupils. Some selection, if possible, is necessary since there are some students who seemingly cannot work independently because of emotional instability.

Administrative problems of the individualized approach to reading would include such things as teacher selection and readiness. In-service training for teachers inexperienced in this method would be of great value. The supervisory needs of these teachers should be met to allow input from more experienced personnel.

In selection of teachers for this type of program, one should take into consideration the teacher's degree of personal organization and planning skills since the foundation of the program is good planning. The selecting administrator should be concerned with the teacher's readiness, flexibility, rapport with children, and overall efficiency. An evaluation should be made to determine a need, if any, for further in-service training.

After initiation of such a program, one can readily see the advantages of individualized instruction in reading. First of all, self-selection avoids teacher pacing and allows students to move along at their own pace. Traditional teachers sometimes have a tendency to hold some students back while trying to tend to the needs of others. Individualization could allow students to progress after mastering a concept even if the others in the class haven't grasped it.

Motivation, in this method, seems to be greater than in the traditional method. This may be true because the child tends to realize his own goals. If a child is allowed to read things that interest him he tends to form a wider vocabulary due to his interest in what he is reading. This motivation, due to interest tends to carry over into other activities once it is initiated.

Competition among students is diminished in this approach to teaching. This is because each child is working on something different and pupil-to-pupil evaluation is difficult. However, competition is not completely eliminated because there is still some small group work involved in almost any type of individualized reading program.

Probably the most important advantage of this approach to reading is the existence of more teacher-pupil interaction on a one-to-one basis. This allows for more pupil input and a better evaluation of needs by the teacher. Teachers can better pin point individual problems and allow for more work in specific areas. The teacher-pupil conference allowed for in this program will develop a better relationship between student and teacher. These conferences allow the teacher to get to know the pupil better and develop an understanding that may not be possible in a traditional setting.

The individualized approach to reading does have some limitations. Some of these limitations are characterized by the following:

(1) Children must seek success and enjoyment in reading. Some children, especially those from culturally deprived environments, seldom see the value for reading ability.

(2) Many teachers are unable to schedule their time efficiently for sufficient conference with pupils.

(3) Many systems cannot supply adequate materials and tools for such a program.

(4) Teachers have difficulty in finding time to familiarize themselves with all the materials which are vital for the program.

(5) Administrative problems in prescribing for pupil needs, teaching independent work skills, and effective management of the class.

Recommendations

1. Collect, organize, and duplicate materials before the school year begins.
2. Utilize all available materials.
3. Find out if any special funds are available for a program such as this and take advantage of them.
4. Research and utilize various techniques of individualization.
5. Arrange the classroom to be conducive to this approach to teaching.
6. Find out the children's specific needs (areas of weakness and strength, etc.)
7. Establish long range and specific objectives for each child.
8. Make detailed plans for each child.
9. Provide for various experiences to complement each child's needs.
10. Utilize as many audio-visual aids as possible.
11. Plan to spend as much time as possible with each child.
12. Plan to allow the child to select for himself as much as possible.
13. Maintain a classroom atmosphere that promotes learning.
14. Make sure classroom displays coincide with as many needs as possible.
15. Encourage and praise students.

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Creative Reading

by

Deborah L. Parker

Great progress has been made in developing helpful techniques and materials for teaching reading, but no packaged program will ever meet the wide variety of personalities faced by teachers. Teachers should approach children with a respect for their eagerness to learn and their creative potential. Then, instead of feeding children packaged prescriptions, teachers will inspire and challenge children to invest their efforts and ideas in learning to read (Gans, vi).

According to this statement made by Roma Gans in the book, Common Sense in the Teaching of Reading, creativity in children can be developed through the teaching of reading, and reading can be taught in a creative fashion. In fact, research has proven that reading can be taught with more positive gains when taught creatively than when taught through the more conventional systems (Smith, xii).

Most educators agree that a great creative potential is inherent in all humans at birth and it can be developed through the reading program of the elementary school curriculum (Sanderlin 28).

Intelligence and creativity are not the same thing, but a relationship does exist between creativity and intelligence. Highly creative people are usually intelligent, but highly intelligent people are not always creative (Smith, 6).

Intelligence is the ability to grasp established facts, to evaluate them and to draw reasonable conclusions; the key word is "reason." Creativity is the skill of making or realizing something new, whether it is an object or an idea; the key word is "originality." All children are born creative and creativity can not be measured by current intelligence tests (Sanderlin, 28).

This paper deals with fourteen basic principles concerning creative reading and some practical suggestions for teaching reading with creativity in mind.

Divergent thinking processes are stressed in creative reading. Divergent thinking, the opposite of convergent thinking, is the basis of all creative thinking. To teach for divergent thinking, the teacher places the child in a situation that is open-ended--where many answers are possible--and challenges the child to present a logical, creative solution to a problem. For example, Mrs. Douglas gave Tommy an empty book--an open-ended situation. Tommy decided what to put in it and then Mrs. Douglas used his statements for teaching material (Smith, 7).

A convergent approach would be to introduce Tommy to an experience chart made by the teacher--to teach him the words and have him parrot them back to the teacher. In convergent thinking there is generally one answer already known by someone, usually the teacher (Smith, 8).

Joanne Sullivan, in the article entitled "Liberating Children to Creative Reading," states that highly creative pupils elaborate upon a passage they read rather than merely interpreting the reading material. They use a reading passage as a jumping-off point for a discussion of other related ideas (Sullivan 639-642).

Motivation is a must in the creative reading process. For example, Tommy was highly motivated by the desire to have a story in his book, but some children are not so easily motivated. Therefore, the teacher is challenged to find creative ways to motivate the pupils. Many writers insist that little creativity takes place unless the child is driven by a desire to solve a particular problem (Smith, 8).

There comes a time in the creative teaching act when the teacher should withdraw and the children face the unknown by themselves. For example, Mrs. Douglas didn't hover over Tommy; she presented him with a challenging problem and let him take off. The teacher should provide some background material and let the student discover their own answers. Creative teaching and creative learning involve risk-taking. Teacher and child must be adventurous--willing to try new things, to take a chance, and to fail. Learning is always trial and error mixed with a generous dose of discovery (Smith, 9-10).

In creative teaching the outcomes are unpredictable. For example, Mrs. Douglas knew that Tommy was interested in starting his book, but she had absolutely no way of knowing what he would put in it. He may have written about his family, his friends, or

his pet. To a great degree, creative products are unpredictable. That's what makes them creative (Smith, 10).

Creative teaching sets conditions that make preconscious thinking possible. Much of creative ability depends on the accessibility of material that the child can mentally reassemble into new relationships. A creative person must have on tap a great reservoir of remembered facts and experiences and a large background of skills. He should be able to draw upon these freely and with little or no inhibition. Classrooms where children are discouraged from using out-of-classroom experiences shut off each child's creative potential considerably. Often the teacher can clog the thinking ability of the children when she refuses to allow them to discuss certain topics. This background is a very important reservoir from which to draw when learning to read (Smith, 10).

In creative teaching, students are encouraged to generate and develop their own ideas. Differences, uniqueness, individuality are stressed and rewarded. For example, Mrs. Douglas should praise Tommy's book. She should use such statements as "I like your book, it is different from everyone else's". A teacher should place emphasis on individuality and uniqueness. Once children sense that the teacher values individuality, they tend to become more original and more creative (Smith, 10-11).

The process of creativity is as important as the product. The sparking of ideas comes from interaction with others. Ideas are sometimes forced into new relationships, and creative ideas are born.

Certain conditions must be set to permit creativity to appear. Creativity cannot be taught, but an environment must be established that encourages its appearance and reinforces the feelings of success a child has when he creates (Smith, 11).

Creative teaching is success-orientated rather than failure-oriented. No child should leave school any day without feeling he has been successful. Activities in reading can be planned so that each child is successful in something (Smith, 11-12).

Creative teaching not only teaches new skills, but also encourages students to apply them to new problem-solving situations. The more knowledge a person has, the more skills he can master, and the more techniques he can use, the better able he is to form new relationships.

Self-initiated learning is encouraged. For example, on another day of school, Tommy made another book and again went to the teacher when it was finished. Helping children to draw on their own resources encourages them to learn by themselves (Smith, 13-14).

Skills of constructive criticism and evaluation are developed. Evaluation is closely embedded in the creative process. People who create are constantly forced to make decisions and to pass judgments. In reading, a system should be devised that allows the child to keep records of his own progress (Smith, 14).

Ideas and objects are manipulated and explored. A high correlation has been identified in research studies between adults who are highly creative and the degree to which they were allowed to explore and manipulate materials as young children (Smith, 14).

Creative teaching employs democratic processes. Children help plan their own learning. The children learn to work together. They develop values of living together and they become respectful of each other's abilities. Creative teaching can also be called humanistic teaching (Smith, 14).

Reading is a process of creative growth (Zirbes, xii) that involves many of skills, a few of which are: making conclusions, reasoning, evaluating, analyzing, telling of original poems and stories, making inferences, discussing, engaging in choral readings, dramatizing of plays, making interpretations, making generalizations and enjoying independent reading.

Each teacher should analyze their reading program to see if the students are allowed to express their creativity. Some of the following suggestions may help to insure the expression of creativity in the classroom.

Constance M. McCullough states that a teacher can make a very simple story from a basal reader creative by asking the proper questions. Do not ask just factual questions, but ask questions that require the child to use relationships, draw conclusions, make inferences and make comparisons (McCullough, 1-7).

In the book, Creative Teaching of Reading in the Elementary School, written by James A. Smith, there is an unlimited list of practical ideas and suggestions for adding creativity to a reading program. For example, a poetry pot, dramatizations, writing stories, illustrating stories, choral reading, individualized stations, learning modules, vocabulary games, language experience stories, and a wide variety of games can be incorporated into a reading program to add creativity.

The Disadvantaged Child in Reading

by

Jeweldeen Perry

The disadvantaged child is defined as usually coming from a poverty home. We find them in the lower economic and social class of Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, Blacks, American Indians, and Caucasians. Recent surveys indicate that there are more poverty families among the Caucasians than are found among any of the other groups.

Disadvantaged children have always been with us, but it is only recently that special concern for improving the reading of these children has risen to a high level.

Four basic factors, affecting the attitudes and learning abilities, characteristic of the disadvantaged child will be presented in this paper in relation to its effect on learning to read: (1) cultural dialects, (2) low self-concept, (3) impoverished environment, and (4) poor health.

Dialects are a part of our American heritage but they are a matter of deep concern to teachers of English and Reading. Educators are especially concerned about the less educated persons who speak dialects that vary widely from Standard English. The child who speaks a Black

dialect, Appalachian, Mexican-American, or some other dialect uses a language system which is different from that used by speakers of Standard English. Since learning to read is basic to learning in all subjects, the pupil who is plunged immediately into learning to read Standard English is faced with a double learning task: learning to decode and interpret reading symbols, and learning a new language.

If he has a teacher who does not accept his dialect and frequently corrects what she considers to be his "bad English," he is apt to develop feelings of inferiority and experience a lowering of self-concept, which is another hazard in learning to read and speak.

There is considerable diversity in viewpoints concerning approaches to use in teaching children with nonstandard dialects to read. If the usual basic reading materials in Standard English are to be used, either (1) the children should learn Standard English before reading is taught, or (2) they should be permitted to read in dialect from the traditional Standard English reader.

The viewpoints of three linguists follow:

> Literacy is built on the base of the child's existing language. This must be a solid one. Children must be helped to develop a pride in their language and in their ability to express themselves and their ideas. In reading instruction, the focus must be on learning to read. No attempt to change the child's language must be permitted to enter into this process or interfere with it. (Goodman, 1965: 853-860)

Stewart (1971) believes that the child's dialect should be accepted by the teacher, and that he should read in his own dialect first. He says,

> the most promising innovation in the direction of a viable literacy program is the pedagogical separation of beginning reading from the encumberment of concurrent foreign language teaching. This separation is accomplished by the single strategy of teaching individuals to read first in their own native language, and then transferring the reading skills thus acquired to the task of reading in whatever language is the ultimate goal of the program.

Loban (1968: 592-599) could also accept the child's dialect. For beginning reading, Loban favors the language experience approach. He would have the teacher use stories and other material dictated by the children. When the child tells his story in his dialect, Loban would have the teacher write the story in the child's dialect "the first few times." After writing "one or two" stories in dialect, the teacher would then write the story in Standard English to show that there is another way of writing the same story. If the child resists, Loban would then continue having the child read in dialect. He thinks the teacher should continually exert "a mild pressure toward standard usage," however, he believes he or she should be "ever ready to relax the pressure if it seems to be alienating or upsetting to the child." He emphasized the necessity for the teacher never to show any disapproval of the child's language.

The second factor contributing an effect on the disadvantaged child in learning to read is the presence of low self-concepts, according to some statements made by specialists who have studied and worked with children in this category.

Whipple and Black (1967) at the International Reading Association stated:

> Great numbers of culturally disadvantaged children develop attitudes of frustration and hopelessness as early as the first grade. They stop trying to learn. Many girls soon become inert, many boys, aggressive, and children of both sexes develop into behavior cases. No wonder that large numbers of disadvantaged children drop out of school as quickly as they can, most of them to join the ranks of the unemployed.

Congreve (1966: 15-17) believes that "Some children learn to accept defeat, frustration, and low position in life because they have taken over the self-concept of their defeated, frustrated or impoverished families." The opposite, of course, could also occur.

Bodwin (1962) says, "It is generally accepted that the self-concept as a precept is not present at birth, but begins to develop gradually as perceptive powers develop."

Many culturally different children come from homes in which their parents have a negative attitude toward social adequacy, and they too reflect this attitude in their low concepts of themselves. It is also possible that many of these children have had low concepts of themselves for sometime before they entered school but are not really conscious of personal inadequacies

until they begin to undertake school learning tasks.

A child with a low self-concept is severely handicapped in learning to read. Several studies have revealed a relationship between self-concept and reading success.

Larry (1962) investigated the concepts of children in the kindergarten and the reading ability of these same children in the first grade. He found that there was a significant positive relationship between those who had positive self-concepts in kindergarten and those who achieved well in reading in first grade.

Wattenberg (1965: 461-467) made an exploratory study in regard to the relationship of self-concept to beginning achievement in reading for the purpose of finding which was the antecedent, poor self-concept or reading disability. He found that measures of self-concept and ego strength in first grade were predictive of reading achievement two and one-half years later, and that as early as kindergarten, self-concept phenomena are antecedents to and predictive of reading achievement.

Lumpkin (1959) compared twenty-four over-achievers in reading with twenty-four under-achievers in fifth grade. He found that the over-achievers revealed significantly more positive self-concepts.

Many other studies have produced evidence that children with strong, positive self-concepts are more successful in learning to read than those who think they are inadequate and cannot learn.

Failure in learning to read no doubt has a still further depressing effect on an already low self-concept. This low concept may in turn spread to the reading materials, the teacher, other subjects, or the whole school with disastrous final results.

Research is revealing that teachers sometimes unwittingly contribute to children's good or poor self-concepts by things they say or do.

Leacock (1969: 43) reported a study resulting from classroom observations in New York City schools. So far as the observers could tell the teachers were free from racial prejudice; some of them were themselves black. According to the data gathered, both the black and white teachers who taught in the low-income black schools expected low achievement of their pupils and expressed this expectation in many ways in their dealings with the children every day, "subtle ways which served to teach lower class children not to learn."

The child from the culturally different home often comes to school in the first place set not to learn and he thinks he cannot learn. His first learning task is associated with reading. He does not do well. His self-concept in reading is

lowered at the beginning. If his teachers think, "He's disadvantaged. What can you expect?" his self-concept grows lower and lower. As he passes through the grades, eventually he may drop out of school mainly because he could not read well enough to do his school work.

Missildine (1956: 9) made a study in which he found that the majority of teachers are irritated, annoyed, vexed with poor readers, and show their feelings about them in many direct and obvious ways. Surely this is not helping them to improve their self-concept of their reading ability which is needed most of all in overcoming their problems.

There are many teachers, of course, who do hold good expectations for their pupils' achievements regardless of their backgrounds and who do help them when they are failing rather than scolding them or showing annoyance with them. Recent research, however, indicates that some teachers are unconsciously tearing down self-concepts instead of contributing to their development.

The third factor effecting the disadvantaged child's reading is his impoverished environment.

Milner (1951: 95-112) found the environment of the lower class home was less verbal than that of the upper class home. The lower class home not only had fewer books but lower class children were read to less often, spoke less with their parents, received physical punishment more often than did children from higher socioeconomic backgrounds.

Deutsch (1963: 35-112) believes that the overcrowding of homes occupied by disadvantaged children restricts their range of experience and inhibits language development; also that verbal interaction between parents and children consists of a minimum of conversation and is largely limited to orders and directions. There is much noise in the home which is not meaningful to children and they tend to "tune-out" what they hear. Deutsch also deplores that furniture and toys are sparse and lacking in form and color.

Hess found as a result of his research that parental behavior and the cultural-pedagogical milieu of the home significantly influenced intellectual development and academic achievement of shildren.

Newton's (1962: 184-187) research indicated that parents of adequate readers were significantly higher in occupational status than were parents of retarded readers.

Moore (1970) made a longitudinal study which resulted in the conclusion that books, toys, experiences, and language stimulation from home visits when the child was two and one-half years old were significantly correlated with the child's reading at seven years and with mental test scores at eight years.

It would appear that the role of the school is to supplement the life of the environmentally deprived child with enrichment experiences continuously interwoven with a stream of language expression, offering him a multitude of opportunities to think, inquire, and find solutions to situations. If guided by skillful, understanding teachers under these conditions, there is every reason to believe that the child will be able to overcome his handicaps and develop into a wholesome productive human being.

Through enrichment experiences the environmentally deprived child has opportunities to acquire concepts, develop vocabulary, to fill the empty shells of reading symbols with that of meaning. These accomplishments should contribute much to the improvement of self-concepts.

The final factor to be cited in the disadvantaged child is the health defects which are so highly prevalent. As one example, the results of a study by Havinghurst (1970: 10-19), gathered from medical examination of Chicago children in a Head Start program. A considerable proportion of these pupils were disadvantaged children in certain areas during the summer previous to their entrance in kindergarten or first grade. The figures are as follows:

Number of children examined medically--14,075.

175 eye defects

138 ear defects

143 nutritional deviations, the majority of which were cases of children being underweight.

Defects--3,957 in 2,960 children.

Major defects included:

286 neurological defects, the majority of which were emotional problems.

435 heart defects of which approximately two-thirds were murmurs; the remainder, congenital conditions and rheumatic heart diseases.

775 cases of anemia

3 cases of tuberculosis: two active cases one child living at home with active case.

In addition, 13,513 screening tests indicated 490 "hearing failures" and 13,022 vision screening tests indicated 1,077 "vision failures."

Havinghurst gives a reason for health defects in disadvantaged children. He says,

> certain health defects are found more frequently in socially disadvantaged children than in a typical group of American children. The reason for this is that poverty and lack of education on the part of parents lead to inadequate health care for these children.

Morris (1970: 23-27) conducted a study to investigate the relationships between general physical health and reading disability. He compared four hundred poor readers selected randomly from a St. Louis reading clinic. Clientele of similar

age, intelligence, and socioeconomic background with four hundred children of similar age, intelligence, and socioeconomic background. He then investigated both groups in terms of childhood diseases, surgical operations, and various specific physical effects. Most childhood diseases were nearly double for the clinical group, with mumps, measles, and chicken pox the most common. Surgical operations were also significantly most common among the poor readers. Auditory defects occurred more than five times as often among poor readers. The visual handicaps, however, were equal in the two groups.

It is quite possible that the greater number of illnesses of the clinical group interfered with the children's success in learning to read.

In discussing "Economic Backgrounds" MacMillan (1970: 72) says:

> Scholastic achievement suffers because of poverty. Children do not have a proper diet, adequate clothing, and other material items necessary for complete involvement in school activities. Visiting classrooms in economically deprived areas, one has no problem in finding examples of how economic deprivation can restrict learning. Children fall asleep from lack of proper sleep and food; skin discoloration and other physical defects are common sights.

The thinking of Birch and Gussow (1972: 9) is sound. They say:

> It is clear that a society genuinely concerned with educating socially disadvantaged children cannot in good conscience restrict itself merely to improving and expanding facilities for learning, however worthwhile and overdue such improvement

and expansion may be. Rather it must concern itself with the full range of factors contributing to educational failure, among which the health of the child is a variable of potential primary importance.

It is evident from these studies and comments of authorities that poor health is common among the disadvantaged. Since robust health and abundant energy are an asset in learning to read, the teacher should do all that she can to promote good health in these children, not only as an aid to them in learning to read but also for their general welfare.

In summing up, it may be said that research has shown that all four factors--cultural dialects, low self-concepts, impoverished environment, and health defects--interfere with reading achievement. To be successful in teaching reading to the disadvantaged we should strive to improve each of these conditions and not labor under the impression that just teaching reading, itself, will do the job.

Suggestions for Improving the Reading of the Disadvantaged Child

1. Dialect differences should not be considered as reading errors. Teachers should recognize that dialect is simply another language, not something to be corrected.
2. Much oral reading should be provided for culturally dialected students as well as oral reading to the children, listening to records and "talking movies."
3. Praise each small achievement that the student makes.
4. Provide opportunities for success, for example: if the child is having difficulty with reading, find opportunities for him to experience success in activities in which he can do well such as drawing, dramatizing, playing certain games.
5. Give him responsibilities that he is capable of carrying out and trust him to discharge them.
6. Don't label him by placing him permanently in the lowest achieving group of the class. Regardless of what the name of the group is, he will know what group he is in. Use a more flexible type of organization.

7. Supply reading books and supplemental books in which pictures and content deal with different racial groups rather than books confined only to middle-class and upper-class Caucasians.
8. Sometimes use pictures or books concerned with mothers in the role of laborer, clerical or professional worker rather than always dealing with mothers in the home doing housework.
9. Take children out of the school into the community and, in later grades, beyond the community. At first, take them on walks around the block or down the street perhaps to see a bird's nest in a nearby tree, then eventually to the bakery, post office, zoo. At later ages, take trips to such places as a newspaper printing press and office, airport, automobile factory, railway depot and yard, sections of the city occupied by different cultural groups. When they are sufficiently mature, take them to historical scenes and monuments, museums, art galleries.
10. Provide for thought-provoking, problem-solving, creative activities in the classroom.
11. Surround the children with books. Let them live in an atmosphere of interest-compelling, concept forming, information-giving books.

12. The teacher should be continuously on the alert for symptoms of physical defects or diseases and get individuals who show evidence of such symptoms into competent medical help as quickly as possible.
13. The teacher should be in close contact with the school nurse. Teachers and administrators should make full use of specialists associated with the school. In situations where medical specialists are not available through the school, the aid of community agencies should be enlisted.
14. Teachers should set an example of exercise, relaxation, and recreation for children in the daily school program. In addition, they should give council and participation in discussions concerning desirable health habits.

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Audio-Visual Aids Used to Implement Reading

by

Pauline H. Birrell

Introduction

In recent years the instructional use of audio-visual media has demanded grave attention. Such media contains a variety of systematically related materials including motion pictures, filmstrips, magnetic tapes, objects, models, disc recordings, student leaflets, programmed learning sequences, and workbooks. Many media may be injected into school systems to improve reading skills. The use of newspapers and magazines is included also.

It is more important that educators know more about the types of audio-visual materials used to increase reading ability and the effect these materials have on children. According to (Wyman, 1973: 29-30) better learning has depended largely upon better teaching, and instructional technology has provided better systems, "audio-visual aids" help with the application of improved techniques for teaching reading.

Teachers should be made aware of the wealth of materials available, aware of their importance and usage, and have access to addresses of notable manufacturers. As a result teachers are enlightened of new innovations.

Visual is referred to as sight. Audio-visual aids give assistance in teaching reading. They are teacher helpers as well as student helpers.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A brief summary of the literature related to this paper includes the material dealing with recent innovations in audio-visual media used to implement reading.

I. Literature of the Film and Correlated Readers

Films correlated with the readers are being published. The film is shown and discussed. Then the correlated readers are distributed and the children are shown that the books tell about the story in the film they have just seen and discussed. The Children's attention is directed to the still pictures in the reader, and the point is made that the pictures are actually taken from the film they have just seen. (Leestma, 1964: 25) "The teacher explains that the printed words with each picture in the film reader tells essentially the same story that the film narrator told." The children will take turns in oral reading, and after this session has been completed, a variety of follow-up activities can be utilized. The children can answer questions on the content of the book, based either on oral or silent reading. The film might be shown without the sound with the children supplying the missing narration. The total experience of film and reader can be used to stimulate the children to discuss their own experiences related to the film, to engage in art or musical activities related to the film, to take a field trip, or to motivate participation in a variety of other related activities.

The integrated use of film and correlated reader provides "a common experience and vocabulary for the entire class, and permits a clear and direct association between the pictures and spoken words of the film and the pictures and printed words of the reader." (Leestma, 1964: 26)

II. Literature on Programmed Instruction

Programmed instructional materials in reading have been greatly assisted by audio-visual materials.

Some interesting materials are being developed that use sight and sound or just sound. "Imperial Productions has developed a set of forty tapes which teach reading skills ranging from reading readiness up to six grade skills." (Barrett, 1969: 407) Each tape has an accompanying four page worksheet. The reading readiness tapes tell stories and ask students to do tasks similar to those found in the traditional reading readiness workbooks. The difference is that no teacher is needed; the tape guides as many children through as can be plugged into the listening post. For older students, the stories are read by the student and then comprehension questions are asked orally, with the student writing the answers on his worksheet. After time has been allowed for the student to write his answer, the tape tells him the correctness of his response.

A more elaborate system is the Aud-X device developed by EDL (Educational Developmental Laboratories) which displays words as well as reads them to the child. An interesting modification

of the cloze technique that the Aud-X system uses is to tell the students a story orally, then the voice leaves out a word and the word is presented visually by the machine. "Thus the student is given semantic clues to help him read the symbol." The Aud-X has also a set of workbooks which can be used in conjunction with the machine so that the student can be interacting by following directions given by the machine, such as "circling a "yes" or "no" or writing a word in a space." (Barrett, 1969: 410) After allowing for the student to respond in his workbook, the machine tells the student the word and shows him the correct word on its screen.

Consequently, programmed materials have helped in reading instruction, but the regular classroom teacher remains supreme.

Listed are noted programmed materials that were published between 1960 and 1965. (Smith, 1965: 39)

1. First Step in Reading is a programmed primer that can be used in a machine. It is intended for the use of parents.
2. Dialogue I is designed for the teaching of auraloral phonics. This programmed book is accompanied with tape recordings.
3. Steps to Better Reading consists of three books for grades seven, eight, and nine.
4. Lessons for Self-Instruction include booklets for use in junior high school on 'Reading Interpretation' and Reference Skills.

5. How to Improve Your Reading and Vocabulary Growth is offered by Coronet Instructional Films. This includes a booklet accompanied by film.

6. Michigan Successive Discrimination Reading Program. This reading program is a part of a general language arts program including discrimination in writing, listening, and language as well as in reading. The purpose of the program is to teach reading, writing, and listening to all English speaking children or adults.

III. Literature of the Talking Typewriter

The "Talking Typewriter" developed by Omar K. Moore of Yale University and the Responsive Environments Foundation is being used in demonstrations and projects to teach reading. The machine can be programmed in different ways to teach children the letters of the alphabet and to read words. When the pupil presses a letter key on the typewriter, the machine says the letter's name. "A word might appear on a screen and the child is expected to type it out." (Karlin, 1971: 28) In the case, all but the correct letters on the typewriter lock so that in order to copy the word he must press the proper keys in sequence. This equipment combines auditory and visual presentation to which the learner is expected to respond.

Computer-Assisted-Instruction is a more recent development. A keyboard is tied into a computer which feeds information to the student. "The student reacts and the computer accepts or rejects the response and presents more information as required." A more elaborate

system uses a television--type screen on which images in the form of pictures, words, or sentences appear. The pupil responds to oral instructions and uses a special pen with which to indicate his responses on the screen. The voice told the pupil if he had made a correct or wrong response. (Karlin, 1971: 30)

IV. Literature on Improved Reading Skills for Mentally Retarded Students

Dr. Edward M. Elliot's article was geared toward improving reading skills for mentally retarded students. However, his findings can be made applicable to improving reading skills of students in general.

He explored a way in which television could be used to perform a variation of drilling sight words. "Since research on teaching sight words to retarded students by means of television had not been widely reported, he set about to test the relative efficiency of two methods of teaching a sight word vocabulary to two groups of these students." (Elliot, 1973: 8)

The television group watched a nineteen inch black-and-white TV broadcast of a hand puppet in a miniature classroom setting each morning in a partially darkened room. The puppet, labeled "word man", said a word. The word was superimposed a white card next to him. The word stayed on the card for three seconds while the students repeated the word. There was a three second pause before the next word was announced. This continued until eight words had been presented.

The teacher's group was presented with eight cards measuring five by eight inches. The cards had a one-fourth inch red border with black letters on a white background. The letters were lower case manuscript form, one and two inches high.

The teacher's class met in a well lighted room. These students sat immediately in front of the teacher, never more than four feet from the cards. The teacher said the word and then held the card so the students could see it. They repeated the word while looking at the card. This was repeated once daily (for nineteen school days) until all eight cards had been shown in this manner.

The post-test given by flashcards presentation, revealed the following:

> "The mean number of words recognized by the teacher's flashcard group was 3.43. The mean number of words recognized by the puppet's television group was 2.14. However, an analysis revealed that the difference was not statistically significant." (Elliot, 1973: 9)

Both groups learned a number of words. A taped television program was shown to be a tool capable of teaching the reading skill of sight word recognition.

V. Literature on Necessity of Audio-Visual Materials in Teaching Reading

Henrietta Komarek's article confirmed the necessity of using audio-visual material in teaching reading. Closed-circuit television programs can be used successfully to stimulate reading. "in Philadelphia public schools, a series called Books in Action dramatizes excerpts from books, plays and stories on Junior-high

reading lists." (Robinson, 1966: 139) A panel of four pupils and the teacher discussed the plot, author's meaning, and character development in the stories. A co-operative team-teaching between the television and classroom teacher was inferred.

Motion pictures, filmstrips and recordings are being used today by many teachers to provide enrichment for stories read by pupils. These materials must be previewed and properly evaluated by the teacher, and their use must be planned for a particular lesson. Filmstrips are the most versatile of the audio-visual materials, since they can be stopped on a frame, turned back, or turned forward.

The opaque projector can be used to show pictures, diagrams, and maps. However, whatever the material, it should be well organized ahead of time. Pictures should be stacked in sequences or attached to shelf paper accordion fashion, so that they can readily be used.

The tape recorder may be utilized by setting it up as a listening station in a corner of the classroom. Mentioned were several uses of the station.

1. In advance, the teacher can tape appropriate directions or questions for a particular reading lesson.
2. Small groups can play the tape back and proceed to carry out instructions.
3. The story itself can be read orally and taped by a pupil or the teacher and then played back at any time

in order to answer questions posed by the teacher.

4. Oral book reports can be taped and listened to for interesting outside--reading ideas.
5. The tape recorder can also be used for dramatization of stories. (Robinson, 1966: 142-143)

The overhead projector is being used today because it is easy to handle and can be used for creative work. Although excellent commercial transparencies are available, to stimulate interest in outside reading, teachers and pupils should make their own transparencies.

VI. Literature on Teaching with Newspapers and Magazines

(Kinder, 1965: 252) found that newspapers and magazines contributed to improve classroom learning in a number of ways. Some typical uses were:

1. Current events study and analysis.
2. Background studies on important local, national and world problems.
3. Practice in improving reading skills.
4. Practice for improving individual and group oral participation.

Magazines gave immense assistance in building reading readiness and skill. Other uses found from magazines were:

1. Using articles to practice outlining skills.
2. A source of pictures for use in the opaque projector.

3. Materials for panel discussions.
4. Exercises critical thinking.
5. Practice to increase word power.

Comics have a hold on child audiences. In recent years, the comic-book industry has established its own code of ethics.

Emphasis has been taken away from the superhuman character; criminal action suggestive to young impressionable readers has been deleted.

Two studies of the reader of regular newspaper comic strips conducted by the Communications Research Center, Boston University resulted in conclusions that:

1. Comic-strip readership is widespread among various age, education, and occupational levels.
2. As one progresses from grade school through college, the percentage of regular readers of comics increases (by a factor of almost 2): highly educated persons are favorably inclined toward the medium.
3. There is some guilt feeling associated with the reading of comics (comic reading is not regarded as a status symbol); there is a stereotyped belief that reading comics is a waste of time; the comic reader may be regarded as somewhat "stupid" because comics are so easy to read. (Kinder, 1965: 267-268)

The first step toward building reading discrimination in students would be to become familiar with the good and bad among these popular media: therefore, the betterment for directing the students' reading is enhanced.

Summary and Conclusions

I. Conclusions

This literature search disclosed that visual media have certain known advantages. With them, large audiences can be reached, rare and unique information is provided. Media plays the role of transmitters of information. The media themselves are messages since they have codes and grammar of their own. These may serve not only as vehicles for information but as tools of thought as well.

As of 1969, there was considerable discussion concerning the future role of computers for individualized instruction in reading. Computers can be built which will help pupils on an individual basis to learn a body of skills relating to word perception, comprehension, and listening. They can be of great aid to the reading clinician in the diagnosis of reading difficulties, since they may be able to classify and catalogue the exact kinds of oral reading difficulties, word recognition deficiencies, and other information.

II. Recommendations

Based upon the findings of this paper the following is recommended:

1. If the cost of computers can be at a level which would allow a large number of schools to purchase them, such instruments may well revolutionize developmental and remedial reading procedures. Teachers would do well to keep abreast concerning the progress of development of these aids and make use of them in their respective schools if they seem applicable to their needs.

2. In an age in which audio-visual materials are so skillfully used to capture the attention of human-beings, the classroom teacher must double his efforts to use this type of material effectively.

3. Careful planning and evaluation of materials must precede every use of them.

4. Pupil participation in the making and use of materials should be closely directed and supervised.

5. The teacher must be enthusiastic and confident in his presentation if his use of audio-visual materials is to inspire his students to greater interest in and enjoyment of reading.

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How Fast Should I Read?

by

Patricia Hawkins

"How Fast Should I Read?" provokes much concern among teachers, students, parents, business executives and people in general. The wide spread concern with rate of reading is reflected in the writings of educators and those who supply materials for magazines and newspapers. There are many commercial courses that advertise on nation-wide scale that their devices will increase speed of reading. Many of these people seem to have the idea that speed of reading is a valid measure of reading performance; however, "reading" without comprehension is clearly not reading. Speed of reading is effective only when the student comprehends what he reads. To measure speed of reading, one must measure the rate with which material is comprehended.

Reading rate should be developed to coincide with material, background, and purpose. For example, regarding purpose, we read differently when we are studying for a test than when we are looking for a number in a telephone book, or when we are browsing through a library book to determine whether or not to take it home. Before reading, we should have our purpose clearly in mind. This is an oversight of many teachers in their assignments-if an assignment is to read pages 40-60, what is the purpose?

A rapid rate of reading is desired in all reading; but rapid reading in itself is of no particular value. The mature reader is the flexible reader, and to acquire flexibility one has to acquire speed. The proficient reader will have several speeds, each of which can be used as the occasion demands.

(Spache, 1966)(Pickett, 1971)(Berger, 1972) all maintain that there are four main rates of reading based on one's purpose:

1. Skimming - the ability to read swiftly and lightly to locate bits of information. If your purpose is to locate literal and brief answers or if you wish to gather facts or general ideas, the reader "skims".

2. Scanning - the ability to read along at a good rate or a point-by-point basis to locate literal information. This performance differs from skimming in that the answer to a question may be located in different parts of the text, thus requiring the reader to do more than focus upon a single fact or a series of isolated facts. The fact needed to answer scanning type questions usually require the reader to do a certain amount of discrimination.

3. Survey reading - the ability to move along so as to get an idea or picture of a story or article as a whole. This may be a point-by-point survey as one may do with a newspaper, or a more careful observation to determine the nature or inward design of a text or to pass a general judgement on it.

4. Study-type reading - This type of reading requires more than grasping of literal information. The reader has to be able to read critically, to read between the lines, and to weigh ideas against his personal experiences and not be biased.

(Stauffer 1969) states that another matter basic to how fast an individual will read is the speed of his reaction to stimuli. Psychologists refer to this as "reaction time". It is probable that, within a certain measured range, a person who habitually reacts slowly to most stimuli may be motivated to react more

quickly to many things he does well, including the rate at which he reads. Many specialists caution against instructional techniques which involve pressure, because an individual's basic security may be challenged if he is pushed beyond the range in which he works comfortably.

(Spache, 1966) states that when material is easy, rapid reading approaches the speed of thinking, and reading becomes more of a thinking act. However, with more difficult material, there is very little relationship between rate and comprehension.

(Pickett, 1971) states that there are several roadblocks to efficient reading. Among these causes of slow reading are subvocalization, mental pronunciation, auditory reading, head swinging, word reading, regressions, and reading without a purpose. If a reader moves his lips, tongue, or larynx while reading, he tends to read silently at no more than his speech rate. Since the rate of speech is relatively slow, the vocalizer fails to achieve the silent reading rate of which is potentially capable.

Offers to increase one's reading rate many times over are made by commercial organizations through advertisement which cite testimonials to substantiate their claims. How rapidly can mature persons read materials that are not difficult for them? According to estimates, the outer limits for reading and measuring the eye span, the duration of stops and time intervals between fixations and return sweeps. Estimates reveal that silent reading with comprehension range from 60-80 words per minute for

the first grade, 120-140 words per minute for the third grade and 185-245 words per minute for the sixth grade.

(Spache, 1966) states that if given proper instruction, students show proportionately more growth in speed of reading at about the fourth grade than during any other period in their schooling, because the rate of recognition begins to surpass the rate of articulation.

Timed exercises with reading selections at a difficulty level appropriate for the students vocabulary and comprehension achievement will increase reading rate. There are several types of devices used to increase rate. These are tachistoscopes, film projection devices, and pacers, as E.D.L. Controlled Readers. However, many educators question their value. Two important factors should be kept in mind:

1. exercises to increase rate should always include comprehension checks.

2. students should be taught the desirability of slow reading for some materials and purposes.

(Dechant, 1961) states "The superior reader supposedly pushes his eyes across the page as rapidly as his comprehension permits. This way may or may not be good. No one can work at top efficiency all the time, and there is no great necessity in even wanting to. At times slowness is beauty. To read slowly, to think critically, and to feel deeply may be true enrichment.

It is an obvious fact that many of us read much more slowly than we could That others read as rapidly as their comprehension abilities allow may also be true. And for these, rate improvement training is of little value.

One should always remember that rate of reading is not the ultimate goal in reading. The ultimate is comprehension according to ones abilities and needs. Rate of reading should always depend on the purpose, intelligence, and background of the reader and also upon the difficulty of the material.

Suggestions for Increasing

Rate of Reading

1. Most important in helping students to adjust their reading rate is to set a purpose for reading.
2. Read phrases instead of words. Try to take in larger units until you have a span of 25 to 35 spaces. Ex. "elementary and secondary schools."
3. Make few fixations per line of print.

   ordinary reading - 3 stops or less

   textbook - 4 stops

   technical - even more
4. Shift gears when reading. Read quickly when material warrants. Slow down on more difficult material. Many persons read everything at the same rate of speed.
5. Concentrate on key words. Ex. "The boy went over to the corner of the room and sat on the chair that he saw there." The fast reader probably "reads" only the words that are underlined.
6. Control or eliminate vocalization. Movement of the lips, tongue, or throat limits your reading to a speaking rate. Auditory reading, a "voice" in the head, slows you down also.
7. Make few or no regressions on line of print.
8. Set aside one hour a day to practice on increasing reading rate. If you increase your basic reading rate on easy

material, you will be reading all material at a faster rate than previously. Speed and comprehension go naturally together. Read just a little bit faster than is comfortable. If you increase your speed, you will understand better; and if you concentrate upon getting meaning; you will read faster.

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Reading Readiness

by

Ruth Eidenier

The term "reading readiness" implies that the reader has reached a stage in his development at which he can read the material presented to him without difficulty. Thus, rather than being an exclusive property of the kindergarten or first grade curriculum, readiness is important at all levels of reading. Such readiness is specific to the type and purpose of the reading encountered and will not be dealt with in this paper. The type of reading readiness discussed here will be that which is generally associated with early reading instruction.

Deciding exactly when to present formal reading instruction to students is not only an inevitable decision for the teacher, it is an important one as well for it has long range effects. The child who is ready to read at an early age but is not directed may become bored and turn his interests and energy toward undesirable activities. On the other hand, if pressure is brought to bear on a child to perform tasks for which he is not sufficiently mature, difficulties, poor attitudes and even failure may result. Writing about the educational causes of reading problems, Bond and Tinker (1973: 151-52) state, "Reading disability is

frequently caused by starting a child in a standard reading program before he has acquired the readiness which will assure success in classroom reading activities." Therefore, the decision concerning the proper time at which to present formal instruction must be based on what is called "reading readiness."

Deciding exactly what constitutes reading readiness or defining the term is somewhat of a problem in itself. Spache (1972) refers to it as a transitional period extending over several months that is related to visual and auditory skills, the sex and age of the students and socio-economic factors. The relationship between reading and visual and auditory skills is readily apparent and the readiness program must both assess and further develop these skills in the student.

Considering the effect that the sex of the pupil has upon reading readiness, Spache (1972) notes that the differences between boys and girls may be due to cultural factors and a lack of male teachers in the elementary schools. Dachang (1970) notes two studies that seem to support this idea. The first is a comparative study of reading in Germany and the United States which revealed that the reading of fourth and sixth grade German boys exceeded that of German girls. A second study of American children did not indicate any sex differences in intelligence. Dechant (1970: 100) concludes, "The teacher must prescribe for the individual boy and girl.....(realizing) that differences between boys and girls..... play a significant role in reading achievement."

Believing that mental age affects academic success, many schools have set the age of six years as a criterion for entering first grade. A particular age level, however, cannot be assigned to reading readiness. The possible effects of presenting formal reading instruction too early or too late have already been noted. A study by David Elkind revealed that certain prerequisite skills for learning to read, such as the abilities to mentally discern, compare, and re-arrange patterns, are not present in the child until the age of six or seven and he suggests that delaying formal instruction until then might ultimately result in better readers. Another investigation by Ogletree (1973) of certain bioplasmic forces involved in human growth indicated that energy for learning such skills as reading is not normally released by the body until the approximate age of seven and attempting to foster premature intellectual growth may actually be detrimental to physical development.

On the other hand, some children are prepared to read at an earlier age. Spache (1972) cites studies that have demonstrated that in small classes with high quality instruction, mental age is only slightly related to reading progress Enid Foreman (1975) points out that children who are eager to read, ask what words are, or request help have attained the necessary maturity for reading regardless of their age Dechant (1970: 164) states, "The teacher of reading cannot forget that some children come to school perhaps fully prepared for reading."

This does not mean, however, that reading instruction can be presented at any mental age. Rather, it emphasizes the individuality among students and suggests that reading readiness stage may extend from ages four to eight (Nash, 1974).

While it may be difficult to pinpoint the precise effects of sex and age on reading readiness, the relationship between socio-economic factors and reading success has been definitely established. The past few years have seen the development of such programs as Head Start as well as the presentation of televised instruction, in the form of such shows as "Sesame Street," to provide for gaps in the experiences of disadvantaged children. Again, Spache (1972: 20) states, "In terms of reading readiness, the children of the poor are apt to be lacking in auditory discrimination, auditory-visual integration, verbal fluency, breadth of speech and auditory vocabularies, diction and articulation."

In addition to Spache, several other writers have attempted to define reading readiness. Bettye Caldwell (1973: 73) concludes that it consists of "(1) the ability to realize that there is some kind of graphic representation that stands for objects or ideas--that is-- a code and (2) to be able to break that code." Elkind (1973: 48) lists three basic requirements for readiness including "(1) the ability to deal in the concrete operations necessary for learning such things as sound letter correspondences, (2) the emotional attachments to adults who motivate the child's efforts to read, and (3) an instruction program suited to the

individual." Still others have stressed the important role of language development in reading readiness. Dechant (1970: 111) states, "The child's proficiency in the communication and language skills, both speaking and listening, is the best indicator of the child's readiness for beginning reading." Diane Sawyer (1975: 622) points out that "reading is based somewhat in an abstraction of language.....(and) if we are aware of the role of linguistic and cognitive abilities and of their sequential development, we will be more alert to indications that a child is not ready for formal reading instruction....."

For yet another definition of reading readiness, we can turn to Dechant (1970: 162) who describes it as "the teachable moment for reading." After noting that the teacher's first task is to interest the child in reading, he lists the various skills that must be developed in the readiness program including concept formation, auditory and visual discrimination, knowledge of the alphabet, left to right progression, associating meaning with printed symbols, acquiring a sight vocabulary, and speaking, listening and thinking skills.

After considering the foregoing information, some conclusions about reading readiness may be drawn. First, reading readiness is not a single factor but a group of traits affected by the physical, mental, social and emotional characteristics of the learner. Second, reading readiness does not appear at a specific point in time. There is a "range of readiness" that is not

limited to a specific age or grade although this does not indicate that instruction is feasible at any age. Certain prerequisite skills must be adequately developed. Third, the student brings his own particular pattern of development and learning to school. The teacher must provide for individual differences. Finally, in as much as reading readiness is based on the development of certain traits, the readiness program can stimulate this development through instruction.

Recommendations

In developing reading readiness, the following recommendations are made to the teacher:

1. Develop and maintain pupil interest in reading by using books in displays and by referring to them for information. The students should see the teacher using and enjoying books frequently.
2. Immerse the students in language. Provide ample opportunities for them to increase their vocabularies and become fluent in speech by allowing them to express themselves orally. Vocabularies can be enriched through trips outside the classroom with the teacher explaining the "how, what and why" of activities. Objects in the classroom can be labelled and captions can be provided for bulletin boards or exhibits. Experiences in listening with full comprehension need to be provided and the pupils' use and understanding of speech need to be checked frequently. Children need to be able to associate words with experiences, organize ideas, form sentences and think sequentially.
3. Provide as many actual experiences with objects, people or events as possible to help students develop concepts, making use of dramatizations, pictures, and extend experiences.

4. Define objectives in behavioral terms to help evaluate the effectiveness and transfer value of the materials being used in the readiness program as well as to aid in determining a child's status as far as "readiness" is concerned. Although some experienced teachers may be adept at intuitively sensing when a child is "ready" for reading instruction, others may find a checklist of skills helpful. In addition, there are several published "readiness tests" which, particularly when combined with close teacher observation, aid the teacher in determining the student's level of "readiness" development.
5. The individuality of the learner dictates a need for individualized instruction, materials, and activities. Instruction should begin at the child's personal level of development, instructional groups should be flexible and the student's progress should be continually evaluated.
6. A relaxed and positive learning atmosphere should be maintained in which the student is neither asked to perform tasks beyond his capabilities nor permitted to remain unchallenged by tasks that are "too easy." Successful performance and progress rather than deficiencies or failure should be emphasized.

7. The teacher should closely observe the students in order to detect any existing physical problems, such as deficiencies in vision, hearing or speech, which might have a detrimental effect on learning to read.

Suggested Activities

1. Language concept development; thinking skills:
   storytelling, show and tell, composing experience charts, interpreting pictures and picture sequences, riddle-guessing games, dramatizations, puppet shows, constructing picture dictionaries, classifying objects and words, following oral directions, labelling objects in the classroom, anticipating story endings.
2. Auditory discrimination:
   identifying "live" or recorded sounds, matching sounds with pictures of objects, associating letters and sounds, noting rhyming words in poems, providing rhymes for simple words, matching objects that begin with the same sound, matching objects with their beginning or final letter, Gossip Game.
3. Visual Discrimination:
   matching objects and geometric figures, learning color differences, working puzzles, matching identical letters and words, noting differences in pictures, letters, and words, picture-design completion, detecting absurdities in pictures.
4. Visual auditory memory:
   reproducing simple designs or letters for memory, "What's Missing" game, supplying the missing elements in pictures,

recalling details of a picture, echo games, reproducing rhythm patterns, letter or number sequences, following oral directions.

5. Motor co-ordination--gross:

Jump rope, rhythmic activities to music, physical exercises calisthenics, ball throwing, bouncing and catching, ring toss, bean bag games, balance beams, obstacle courses.

6. Hand-eye co-ordination--fine muscle:

drawing, coloring, cutting, pasting, tracing, copying designs, figures, letters and words, dot-to-dots, playing jacks and marbles.

7. Alphabet knowledge:

learning letters in own name, associating letters with key words such as "b-ball", reading ABC books, using and making picture dictionaries, tracing and writing letters, matching letters, arranging letter cards in alphabetical order.

8. Left to Right progression:

games using "left and right" such as "Simon Says," songs and rhymes that teach "left and right," drawing arrows pointing to the right under the beginning of a word, arranging picture sequences, left to right tracing of lines, words, or geometric figures, arranging letter blocks to spell words, choral reading.

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Innovations in Reading

by

Cleta Lanningham

One of the major concerns of teachers and educators today is that of teaching reading, and in the past ten years we have witnessed many and varied innovations in the field of reading. Some of these innovations are new, though others utilize effective techniques from older innovations and combine them for improvements. The innovations to be considered in this research will be some from among the vast number which were developed to aid in the teaching of beginning reading.

There have been many innovations involving stronger decoding programs, or the mastering of relationships between sounds and symbols. Among these are the Phonetic Keys to Reading, by Theodore L. Harris, Mildred Creekmore, and Margaret Greenman. This material is published by the Economy Company, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. There is emphasis on phonics and the relationship of phonics to the development of the reading vocabulary, along with skills for teaching reading (Chall, 1967: 333).

The program starts with the presentation of the vowels, long and short, followed by the consonants and consonant blends, and the accompanying charts, experience charts, and games. The pre-primer, Tag, is followed by the six-week primer period, where dipthongs, root words, syllabication and more rules are introduced. The first-reader period is five weeks, and suffixes, prefixes, and compound words are introduced during this time period. Sight words are put to "Jail" and are to be committed to memory. Independent children assist the slower ones. This program has a slower start than the conventional programs because of its systematic and thorough development of the basic reading skills, but it is hoped that the results will justify the patience that is required (Naftzinger, 1964: 506-510).

Leonard Bloomfield began working with linguistics, or the science of the language, back in 1930 when his own child was experiencing reading difficulties. His materials came to the attention of Clarence Barnhart, and their combined program, Let's Read, was first published in 1960 by the Wayne State University Press (Fry, 1972: 384-385).

The first book contains material for the child and the person who is instructing him, including suggestions for testing and reviewing. The book contains 245 lessons. After learning the alphabet, the children practice lists of words having similar patterns and progress to sentences containing the words that they have learned. All reading is oral, with emphasis on recognition of words rather than on meaning. Word patterns

not phonics, are of prime concern, and there are approximately 5000 words introduced in the first book.

Charles Fries, Agnes C. Fries, Rosemary Wilson, and Mildred Rudolph, are the authors of A Basic Reading Series Developed Upon Linguistic Principles. This is the first graded series of basal readers prepared for the purpose of applying linguistic theory. There are seven books, each of which has a practice book. There is also a Teacher's Manual. Beginning instruction starts with language activities and the learning of the alphabet is in capitalized, then lower-case forms. The children then learn certain word patterns and proceed to carefully organized sentence sequences. Meaning and word recognition are emphasized in this program. It has proven effective in working with disadvantaged children and also with remedial cases. (Smith, 1962: 388-391).

Several interesting innovations involve modified alphabets. The Initial Teaching Alphabet, more commonly known as the I/T/A, was designed by Sir James Pitman of England. It is a modified form of the Roman Alphabet, containing 43 characters instead of our traditional 26. Because of the provision for presenting fewer whole-word representations and making fewer phonic symbols, it was planned in the hopes of making reading easier. The Downing Readers, prepared by John Downing and his collaborators, were published in London in the early Sixties and were the first series to be printed in I/T/A.

The American series, I/T/A Early-to-Read Series, prepared by Albert J. Mazurkiewicz and Harold J. Tanyzer, includes a Ready for Reading Workbook, a 1A Story Book, a 1B Story Book, and six readers of increasing difficulty. There are teachers' manuals and workbooks available for several different levels, and sound symbols are introduced gradually and reinforced in the workbooks. All books are printed in I/T/A except for Book 7, which is used in making the transition from I/T/A to the traditional alphabet.

The content of these books is different from the customary stories based on home experiences. Book 1A is about a dinosaur, and the entire series is designed to extend the child outward from his immediate surroundings. There are fanciful stories, old tales, and realistic narratives.

From the beginning, children participate in activities involving reading, handwriting, creative writing, spelling and thinking. Many supplemental materials are available: My Alphabet Book, Handbook for Writing and Spelling, and Number Book. Sound-Symbol Cards and Vocabulary Cards are also available (Smith, 1962: 392-396).

Words in Color, devised by Caleb Gattegno, is another modified alphabet system. It is also a British-based system, and although it has been commercially available for a longer period of time than I/T/A, it seems to be used less in schools.

The material is published by Encyclopedia Britannica, and

the forty-seven different sounds of English are taught by using a different color for each sound. There are also twenty-one drill charts containing 270 letters or letter groups that make a phoneme and some phonetically regular words. Children are drilled by the teacher to learn to make the sounds in isolation, and then blended together. Vowels are introduced first and then blended with the consonants. The children have workbook materials but these do not have color. Teachers using this material are instructed to get a large selection of colored chalk to be used for the board drill (Fry, 1972: 292-293).

The Diacritical Marking System, developed by Edward B. Fry, has essentially the same goals as the I/T/A, yet without distortion in word form or changes in spelling. It is somewhat simpler than the diacritical marking systems found in most dictionaries, for it aims to aid beginning readers rather than give accuracy.

Since regular consonants and short vowels are the most common usages of the letters, they are unmarked. Long vowels have a bar over them and two-letter combinations making unique sounds such as consonant digraphs and diphthongs have a bar under both letters. Slashed through silent letters, plus a few other marks, are used. Most of the first grade reading words are marked, and board and duplicated work contains the DMS marks. When writing, the children have the option as to whether or not to use them.

Another new phonetically regular alphabet is Unifon. It was developed by John Malone and is a forty-letter, single sound alphabet which uses block letters. The letters are designed so that they can be read by computers for automatic translating purposes (Fry, 1972: 394).

Nine English spelling rules explain its use, for Unifon was developed to improve spelling and not reading. Adults work well with Unifon, but children have needed considerable time, spaced repetition, and practice. This program begins personal writing early, though there is presently not much material being published in Unifon (Wittick, 1968: 84).

Individualized Reading and the Language Experience Approach are two innovations stressing greater individualization in instruction. Individualized reading is an approach to reading that is based on the needs of children. As each child reads material that he has chosen because of his particular interests, reading instruction is provided by the teacher on this material. The teacher works with individuals and with groups of children on difficulties observed during individual conferences. Time is provided for all children to read independently and to have individual conferences for the purpose of discussing reading material, difficulties, and needs.

Educators working in this program believe that skills are necessary to good reading, but that these skills must be introduced functionally, and that each child should know what skills he needs and why they are needed. The child should also be able to

proceed at his own rate and not be compared with other children in the classroom (Carter, McGinnis, 1962: 132-133).

The language experience approach to reading teaches beginners to read through the association of print with meaningful experiences. Claryce and Roach Van Allen are authors of a series of pupil and teacher materials, Language Experiences in Reading, published by Encyclopedia Britannica.

They feel that the basic source of all reading failures is productive thinking, and they place emphasis on helping each child to acquire English words for the things he is learning and to record his language individually. They want the child to think of reading in the following rationale: What I think about, I can talk about. What I say, I can write or someone can write for me. What I can write, I can read and others can read it. I can read what I have written and I can also read what other people have written to be read. (Aukerman, 1971: 303).

Language Experiences in Reading suggests a wide variety of experiences to promote learning for children, including field trips, demonstrations, films, filmstrips and stories. Records, tapes, cassettes, painting, talking, and investigating are among the vast number of techniques advocated in their teaching materials (Allen, Allen, 1969).

In the language experience approach, the child dictates stories to the teacher, who records them for the child to learn to read. The child's attention is called to such things as letter forms, like and different words, and like and different

endings in words. He may illustrate his story and learn to read it to his teachers and friends. The steps are much like those in individualized reading, but the child creates his own materials. As handwriting skills increase, he may begin writing his own stories. He gains experience in sounds, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and language. Later the child may transfer from his own materials to reading what other children have written and to conventional books (Wittick, 1968: 90).

The field of reading has seen numerous innovations in technology, and Dr. Omar Khayyam Moore and his typewriter procedure would certainly be included among these technological innovations. Dr. Moore's materials include booths, approximately eight feet square, insulated so noise will not penetrate, and air conditioned for comfort. There is nothing inside a booth but the machine and a highchair. The child is monitored through one-way vision glass and an intercom system.

The typewriter, conceived by Dr. Moore and invented by Richard Kobler, was developed at the Edison Research Laboratory, McGraw Edison Company, and is marketed by the Responsive Environments Corporation. It is a computerized typewriter that talks, listens, accepts, responds, and presents pictoral material. It can also comment, explain, present information, and respond to being touched.

The typewriter is enclosed in plexiglass for safety, and it is jam-proof, making it impossible for a child to depress two keys at one. The keys are colored, so that the child may match

his painted nails to the keys, thus developing correct fingering for typing. The standard keyboard has primary type.

Above the typewriter is an exhibitor for displaying printed material and a red adjustable pointer band helps the child keep his place. A speaker and a small projector which uses regulation size slides are built into the machine. After becoming acquainted with the keyboard and some of the alphabet, the child works with a card on which letters have been printed. One letter at a time is visible on the exhibitor and the machine's voice pronounces the name of the letter. Words soon replace letters, and the audio and the visual contribute to the child's understanding. The typewriter can be programmed to give the sound of a letter and it can be used to record the child's voice. Dr. Moore's children can read, write, type, and take dictation, as well as compose their own stories, before entering the first grade (Johnson, 1967: 110-115).

The IBM 1500 Computer is another innovation in the field of technology. It is to be used in booths and the children wear earphones. They observe images on a television-like screen. They touch indicated images as they appear with a light-projecting pen, and if the correct choice is made, a voice answers, "Good." If the choice is incorrect, a soft "No" is heard. The instructions are repeated. If a child makes consecutive mistakes or doesn't try at all, a signal monitors for the teacher to give assistance.

The child learns his own name, and proceeds at his own rate with exercises and word games that have been designed to teach reading. The machines are expensive and therefore not practical for the average classroom (Wittick, 1968: 95). Though effective, they also have limitations since they cannot be carried to homes, libraries, and classrooms. Textbooks and other smaller aids and machines are available for students to use in their free time, but these larger machines can only be used when available (Umans, 1963: 114).

Recommendations

The following recommendations and comments might be considered by teachers and educators who are considering innovations for improving their reading program:

1. Innovations in the field of reading are numerous and this number is constantly increasing.
2. There is a need for teachers and educators to keep an open mind and to seek for newer and better ways of improving their teaching methods and standards.
3. Teachers should keep abreast professionally and should be aware of the innovations in the field of reading.
4. Teachers might successfully adapt certain innovations or parts of these innovations to best meet the needs of their individual students.
5. Teachers and principals should be aware that most researchers work with a "missionary zeal" to achieve their success, and that to achieve the same success, one will need that same zeal.
6. Innovations involve expanse, and amounts needed and amounts available should be considered before making a complete change in the present reading program.
7. Availability, versatility, and usefulness of an innovation should be compared to its cost. It might be that a more-useful innovation than the one under consideration can be acquired for less money.

8. It should be remembered that no matter how good the innovation might be, the classroom teacher is the main key to the success of the program.
9. Teachers should remember that the settings and conditions for research are not often similar to the average classroom settings and conditions; therefore, the outcomes from the use of certain innovations might be quite different from those which were achieved by the researcher.
10. Teachers should remember that most of the innovations available today are the result of individual concern and individual seeking to find a better way of teaching. It might be that your particular solution for a child could become an innovation that would benefit teachers and children of the future.

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Diagnostic and Remedial Reading

by

Herbert R. Peterson

The term "remedial" when referring to reading is loosely used to describe a wide variety of reading activities. It is commonly contrasted with "developmental reading" with the most apparent difference being that pupils are segregated from their classmates for the "remedial" instruction, but sit in the same room for the "developmental" program. A pupil becomes a case for remediation when he cannot participate profitably in classroom learning activities which involve the use of textbooks. This definition comes from William Kottmeyer.

Who knows better than the teacher of a child with a reading problem, the importance of reading in being a success in school? And who is in a better position than the classroom teacher to realize that the inability to read, coupled with the lack of desire to read, leads directly to school failure. A teacher knows the type of problems presented by the child who cannot or will not read, for he faces the reality of this situation each day. He must be armed with the diagnostic and remedial techniques necessary to meet these problems as effectively as he can each day, for the exceptional child is not included in the generalization of most basal series teachers' manuals.

Although there is no single observable characteristic which isolates the problem reader from his classmates, he will likely demonstrate the characteristics of one or more of the three basic types of problem readers. The following is a description of these problem readers:

1. A child is a problem reader because, for one reason or another, he does not read as well as his ability indicates he should. He should not be judged by his reading skills in relation to his grade level in school, but rather in relation to his potential. The fact that a dull child reading below his grade level in school may become a problem, does not necessarily imply that his development of reading skills are retarded. On the other hand, the bright child, although reading well above his grade level may be considered a problem reader when his reading level and ability of each child to arrive at a comparison determining whether or not he is operating below his potential.
2. A child may be considered a problem reader when, with the exception of a specific skill deficiency, all measures of reading are up to his potential. He does satisfactorily in most reading situations, but becomes a problem because of a specific type of deficiency. Although more difficult to locate because he appears normal in most reading skills, the deficiency, once located, is more readily corrected due to the precise nature of remediation necessary. The

classroom teacher, being constantly alert to this type of deficiency, is less likely to label the child lazy or careless.

3. A child may be considered a problem reader when, with reading skills in good relationship to his potential, he lacks the desire to read. Ruth Strang in her book "Diagnostic Teaching of Reading" states, "under test conditions, and for a short period, the individual may score above average, but emotional conflicts, lack of purpose, visual discomfort, dull textbooks and other factors may decrease his reading efficiency in everyday assignments".

These factors, mentioned by Strang, discourage a child from using available skills and tend to dampen the desire to read. It is of utmost importance that a lack of desire to read be considered a reading problem since it often appears that this child has no problem. Clinic reports for such children show that they are frequently subject to ridicule and disciplinary action, since it is often assumed that there is no excuse for their poor reading habits. An understanding of the child's real problem, however, will indicate the need for adjustment in the school situation to develop a better attitude toward reading.

Kottmeyer states, "the most effective device for the segregation and teaching of pupils who cannot profitably use textbooks in the classroom is the reading clinic, an institution

operated primarily to provide careful diagnostic procedures to determine reading difficulties and intensive individual or small group teaching". There is no doubt that if clinic teachers are well trained in diagnostic and remedial techniques, are given enough time and resources to do their work carefully, and are not overloaded with cases, they can get results faster than classroom teachers. The deterents to operating reading clinics are readily apparent: Clinic service is expensive and relatively few children can be given help.

There are several means which have proved useful in helping slow primary pupils to master the basic reading skills without clinic services.

Retention in kindergarten. Large school systems which have many pupils with inadequate oral language skills when they enter school can profitably retain pupils longer than one year in kindergarten, especially when entrance-age requirements are low. The additional language growth and mental maturity which is gained makes initial success in reading possible for many pupils who would otherwise have a great deal of trouble.

Transition Units. When kindergarten entrance-age requirements were lowered during the war as a concession to working mothers, the concept of transition units was introduced. This was a one-semester, full school-day program of typical reading readiness activities for all pupils who had spent a year in the kindergarten. The transition unit was at first only grudgingly tolerated by

parents; but after several years of operation, it became generally accepted in the community. Primary teachers were quick to see its educational values for children. When children are admitted to school at early ages, the inevitable remediation needs can be reduced by such measures. Each community must be led to understand the reading readiness problem and must be made to see the purposes of such a unit, if it is to work without the kind of interference with which administrators are unhappily familiar.

Supernumary Teachers. It has become common practice for primary teachers to divide their pupils into three groups and to work with each group twice daily in reading activities. This makes a difficult and taxing schedule, and the slow groups tend to struggle and strangle, especially if the number of pupils is uncomfortably large. If an additional teacher, adept at working with slow learners, can be assigned to work with several primary teachers, she can help materially by withdrawing groups from the classroom daily and teaching one of the two daily periods for several teachers.

The work of the extra teacher must, of course, be coordinated with that of the various teachers whom she is assisting.

Rooms of Twenty. The St. Louis schools now use another means of assuring reading competence for many pupils who cannot be accomodated later in the reading clinics. All primary school pupils are classified by "levels" in reading, oral and written language, spelling, handwriting, and arithmatic. They receive

instruction at the level at which they are in each area, no matter what their grade placement may be. These "levels" are defined in terms of skills, and pupils who achieve the skills of the final primary levels have no difficulty in dealing with the fourth-grade textbooks. Naturally, all pupils do not master these skills after three years of instruction. Such pupils are segregated into "Rooms of Twenty". These classrooms accomodate twenty pupils who have had two and one-half or three years of instruction and who clearly have not mastered, or show no immediate promise of mastering, the basic skills required of pupils who enter the fourth grade.

For the parent to have any role at all in remediation there must be a general understanding of the educational goals set by the person conducting the remediation. It is not only ethically appropriate for the educator to inform the parents of such goals, but it makes reaching the goal far more feasible when the parents are effectively involved. The first task, therefore, is to inform the parent of realistic goals and of the general approaches to be used in attaining these goals. It is extremely helpful if these goals are short-range and easily attainable so that the child, the parent, and the educator can see clearly that progress is being made. Of course, this will necessitate contacting the parent as the goals are readjusted and progress in the development of reading skills is made. Contacts with parents are most effective when they receive the information in a consultation session.

The most appropriate role for the parent, after an understanding of the program has been made available, is to provide situations in the home where the skills learned in remediation can be reinforced. Although this task is time consuming, the parent should recognize the necessity of providing these opportunities as his foremost responsibility.

The child should have a quiet, comfortable, and relaxing place for reading in the home. A planned time for reading without interference of the T.V. should be provided. Books should be obtained by the parent for the child to read. Normally the educator will supply the first books from materials available in the remedial program; however, since the supply of books is often limited, the parents can be encouraged to assume responsibility for obtaining books.

Diagnostic and Remedial Reading

Recommendations:

1. Help the child to experience success through giving him work that he can accomplish and gradually increase the difficulty.
2. Capitalize on strengths and alleviate weaknesses.
3. Behavior modification may be used when deemed appropriate.
4. Show visible exhibits of the child's success. Use charts or graphs. The child will compete with himself.
5. Direct the student to read for facts. Have him determine what is important and what is unimportant.
6. Exercises to improve eye movement.
7. Select material of interest to the subject.
8. Allow child to participate in organization of the remedial program.
9. Provide incentives to transfer leisure reading skills to school subjects.
10. Guard against relapses.
11. Use of mechanical devices:
    A. Controlled reader
    B. Reading Accelerator
    C. Reading Rate Controller
    D. Rate Reader
    E. Reading Board
12. Read with understanding. Grasp the main idea, note important details. Answer questions and evaluate what is read.

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